

International Association of School Librarianship

16TH ANNUAL CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS



REYKJAVÍK - ICELAND

JULY 26-31

1987



INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL
LIBRARIANSHIP
16TH ANNUAL CONFERENCE

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THE SCHOOL LIBRARY: GATEWAY TO KNOWLEDGE

PROCEEDINGS

Compiled and edited
by

Dr. Sigrún Klara Hannesdóttir

April 1988



INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL
LIBRARIANSHIP

REYKIAVÍK - ICELAND

PREFACE

THE IASL CONFERENCE IN ICELAND

The Sixteenth Annual Conference of the International Association of School Librarianship was held in Reykjavík, Iceland, July 26-31, 1987. To select Iceland as a location for the conference is in many ways symbolic for IASL. Iceland stands with firm roots in the written culture and at the same time is open to international developments. Iceland has managed to hold the highest literacy rate possible and the book publishing per capita is among the highest in the world. The population in Iceland is only 247.000 people and the Icelandic language is the only official language for culture and communication. This makes Iceland a very small market which in turn creates problems for the publishers and increases the price of books. However, five newspapers appear every day! The mass media is flourishing with two national television stations and a multitude of radio stations. Videos and home computers are common in Icelandic households along with an extensive home library.

It was a special honor for the Icelandic school library community to have the opportunity to host this international conference and we welcomed the occasion to have so many distinguished guests visit our country which in many people's minds is very far away from the beaten path.

The organization of the conference was in the hands of a committee, composed of representatives from the host organizations: Háskóli Íslands. Félagsvísindadeild (The University of Iceland, Faculty of Social Science); Félag bókasafnsfræðinga (The Association of Professional Librarians); Bókavarðafélag Íslands (The Icelandic Library Association); Skólavarðan (Association of School Librarians); and Hið Íslenska Kennarafélag (Association of Secondary School Teachers).

The conference venue was the newly built conference facility of Hotel Saga, conveniently located at the edge of the University Campus and within walking distance from downtown. The conference was attended by 140 participants from 17 countries worldwide, with representatives coming from as far as Malaysia, Australia in the east, and Trinidad and Tobago, and Jamaica in the west.

During the conference IFLA/International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions was represented by Lucille C. Thomas and WCOTP /World Confederation of the Teaching Professions was represented by Lars-Erik Klason. Both representatives brought greetings to the conference during the opening ceremony.

The theme of the conference was: THE SCHOOL LIBRARY: GATEWAY TO KNOWLEDGE. This theme was addressed with papers and presentations which are

included here in these proceedings. However, as always, some important papers are omitted because the only material available is a set of transparencies without text. Such oral presentations will always be lost in printed proceedings because its information value lies in the knowledge transmitted orally to supplement the documentation.

The proceedings are ordered alphabetically by author with the exception of the two panels which are grouped together.

Very special thanks go to University secretary , Ms. Elísa M. Kwaszenko, who has been untiring in processing these papers along with all her extra duties. The organizing committee has helped with the proofreading of the papers and their assistance is also gratefully acknowledged.

April 1988

Dr. Sigrún Klara Hannesdóttir

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CONFERENCE PROGRAM

SUNDAY, July 26

16.00-20.00

Registration. Hotel Saga. New Wing. 2nd floor.

20.00

Informal social evening. Hotel Saga. 1st floor

MONDAY, JULY 27

09.00-10.30

OPENING CEREMONY

1. Greetings from conference organizers:
Dr. Sigrún Klara Hannesdóttir
2. Opening of the conference:
Sólrún Jensdóttir. Director of Education.
3. Iceland - books and literacy:
Sigurdur A. Magnússon
4. Greetings from IFLA:
Lucille C. Thomas.
5. Greetings from WCOTP:
Lars Erik Klason
6. Melaskóli Children's Choir
7. Greetings from Association representatives
8. President of IASL

10.30-11.00

Coffee break

11.00-12.30

Keynote speaker:

Jónas Pálsson (Iceland)
The School Library - Gateway to knowledge.

12.30-14.00

Lunch (Committee meetings)

14.00-15.30

Assembly of associations

17.00-19.00

Reception in Höfði:

The Mayor of the City of Reykjavík

TUESDAY, July 2809.00CHILDREN, SCHOOL LIBRARIES AND
KNOWLEDGE:

Sigrún Adalbjarnardóttir (Iceland)

Children's voices in how to resolve
communicative conflicts in school settings:
Relating psychological research and
educational implications.

10.00-10.30

Coffee break

10.30

Ylfa Lindholm- Romantschuk (Finland)

Book selection in the school libraries in
small countries.

10.30

Astrid Sandvík (Norway)

The use of school libraries in interdisciplinary project work.

11.30-13.30Association Assembly (Closed session)

11.30-13.30

Lunch

13.30THE SCHOOL LIBRARY AND CURRICULUM

13.30

Michael J. Cooke (U.K.)

The school library and the curriculum. The implementation
of information skills within the school: Strategies and
policies.

13.30

Gerald R. Brown (Canada)

The school library as an indispensable agent
in the school.

14.30

Marit Helle (Norway)

Integration of the school library into
everyday school work.

14.30 Barbara McKinney and Wanda Jones (USA)
Using student media production to teach
curriculum skills.

16.00-16.30 Coffee break

16.30 Annual General Meeting

WEDNESDAY, July 29

09.00 SCHOOL LIBRARIES AND LITERATURE
IN ICELAND

Dr. Sigrún Klara Hannesdóttir (Iceland)
School library development in Iceland.

09.30 Ingibjörg Sverrisdóttir (Iceland)
Non-fiction for children in Iceland 1974-1983

10.00-10.30 Coffee break

10.30 **PANEL:**
Children's authors and publishing in
Iceland.
Chairman: Silja Adalsteinsdóttir
Members: Ingibjörg Ásgeirsdóttir
Guðrún Helgadóttir
Dr. Gunnar Karlsson

12.00-13.30 Lunch with authors

13.30-17.00 Tour visiting school libraries in primary and
secondary schools.

Three different tours: Registration at the
information desk.

Tour 1:

Fjölbrautaskólinn í Breiðholti (Comprehensive Community College)

Gerðuberg (Public Library and Cultural Centre)

Tour 2:

Ölduselsskóli (Primary school)

Flensborgarskóli (Secondary school)

Tour 3:

Gardabær (Combined public and school library)

Valhúsaskóli (7th to 9th grade school)

THURSDAY, July 30**09.00****THE SCHOOL LIBRARY AND AUTOMATION**

Dr. L. Anne Clyde (Australia)

Computers and school libraries: An overview.

10.00-10.30**Coffee break****10.30**

Dr. Dorothy A. Williams (Scotland)

Keywords and learning: The microcomputer in
the school library project (MISLIP)**10.30**

W. Bishop (U.S.A.)

Computer scheduling of 16 mm films and
videotapes to 172 schools.**11.30**

Joyce Kirk (Australia)

Online information in schools

11.30

Alan Ball (Canada)

Online catalogues and school libraries.

12.30-14.00Lunch

14.00

Dr. Edward W. Barth and Alice Nelsen (USA)

Correlating computer skills into the library
media program.

15.00

LaVonne Gudmundsson (USA)

Integrating cooperative learning skills and software to teach
reference skills.

RESEARCH IN SCHOOL LIBRARIANSHIP

14.00

Dr. Snunith Shoham (Israel)

Bibliographic search patterns of high school
students.

15.00

Dr. Pierre G.J.Overduin (South Africa)

South African school libraries today: Results
of an indepth survey (1982-1986)

18.00

Final banquet in Thingvellir.

Leaving Reykjavík, at 6. p.m. by bus to
Thingvellir. Sightseeing and a short walk
down the lava crevice (weather permitting).
Dinner at 8'oclock.

FRIDAY, July 3109.30SCHOOL LIBRARIAN AS INTERMEDIARY TO
KNOWLEDGE

Wong Kim Siong (Malaysia)

The training of school librarians: the
Malaysian experience.

10.30-11.00

Coffee break

11.00

PANEL:

The school librarian as intermediary to
knowledge: for what future do we prepare?

Chairman: James A. Gilman (U.K.)

Members: Joyce Wallen (Jamaica)

Dianne Oberg (Canada)

12.30

Final luncheon

Mary Ann Paulin (USA)

How to share IASL with others

Welcome address

Dr. Sigrún Klara Hannesdóttir

Ladies and gentlemen!

First of all, let me extend to all of you a wholehearted welcome to Iceland. I can hardly believe that so many of you who I have met on different occasions in the past have been able to come and visit and allow me to show you my little corner of the world. I am also very pleased to be able to greet some distinguished representatives from the teaching profession in this country and I know that they have come in the middle of their summer vacation to attend our meeting.

It is a special feeling to welcome you here in a country renowned for its contrasts. We sometimes say that this land lies at the edge of the inhabitable world. But Iceland is also a NICELAND at least to us its most sincere admirers! I believe that for some of you this country has shown a cold and damp face. You that come from warm and sunny parts of the world will have shivered a bit when coming off the plane and wrapped yourselves tighter in your coats or sweaters. But living in this land is in itself a lesson in how to conduct your life. Be prepared for the worst and enjoy the good moments when they come.

Doubtlessly the country, the climate and the harshness of nature put their mark on the people that live here. We are said to be stubborn, cold on the surface but warm and friendly when you get to know us. This point was driven home to me when I came to the airport on Thursday to pick up some of the Board members and the rain and the wind was beating on the window. - What a nasty welcome for our foreign guests. Then one night we got the most lovely color display anybody can imagine with golden clouds and some told me that the rainbow at 4 o'clock in the morning was lovely!

But we have gathered in Iceland to talk about something else than the weather. We have come together to talk about what is embedded in our minds as the concern for the future. What is going to happen to the book in the future? What effect is computer technology going to have on books and reading? Will it be used in such a manner that each and every child will be able to learn to his or her fullest capacity? Will they be able to operate in their adult life as selective users of knowledge or is the computer going to be used as a gadget for games? It is natural for us in this little land to be concerned. The country is fortunately open to all influences, and new technology in whatever form has an easy access to every home. But with this influx of impressions we need a strong

cultural background to be able to assimilate and adjust what is suitable for us, and to be able to do that, we need a well educated population that is not too easily impressed with the wrapping and looks at the contents.

The Icelandic culture has been preserved in spite of a very low population and there are still many things which we would like to point out as our specialities. One of those is our language which is spoken by only a quarter of a million people in this country and a few outside this island. This language is difficult for anybody to learn that is not born here and we preserve letters in the alphabet that existed in Anglo Saxon but have been abandoned in modern English. These are the þ/Ð (which for your convenience I have spelled mostly as Th - with some exceptions), and its voiced counterpart ð/Ð which people tend to misread as an o because it has a little hook on top of its head. Where we usually write this letter such as in names, I have put a D in the program to prevent misunderstanding. This is particularly valid in the name lists.

One more little peculiarity I must mention to you because as far as I know we are the only country in the world that does things just this way. This has to do with our name-traditions. We have a patronymic name-system where we take our father's first name and add son or daughter /spelled dottir/ to that name. So if our father is Magnús Jónsson, we would be Magnúsdóttir and/or Magnússon, depending on our sex! - In Iceland we are alphabetized by first names in the telephone directory and in the card catalog, and to top that, women do not change their names when they marry. You cannot tell from the names of people if they are married or not. This is of course fine with us at home but has created problems for us when we travel abroad - although this is not unique any more. Husband and wife with two children all carrying different last names have raised eyebrows in many a hotel abroad!

Let me repeat my welcome to you. I am very much impressed that we do have almost 100 foreign registrations and more than 40 Icelanders have registered for the conference. Altogether 23 papers will be presented in addition to the two panels.

I sincerely hope that your stay in Iceland will be a pleasant one and that you return home with some warm memories and make a real effort to look under the harsh surface which tends to show these days and recognize the warm heart that beats underneath.

Opening Address

Sólrún Jensdóttir

School librarians and other guests to the opening of the 16th annual conference of the International Association of School Librarianship!

The Icelandic Minister of Culture and Education, Mr. Birgir Ísleifur Gunnarsson, asked me to give you his best wishes and regards and to open this interesting and ambitious conference on his behalf.

I said ambitious conference as it clearly emerges from the program how many dedicated people have worked hard to ensure its success. On the one hand the Icelandic preparatory committee and on the other hand the many speakers, some from countries as far away as Australia and Malaysia.

The great importance of a well equipped school library is becoming ever clearer to us. Of course books have always been important, but with the increasing intrusion of the mass media in particular television, into children's lives, an ever greater effort must be made on behalf of the book.

The most famous Iclander in the early 12th century was called Sæmundur the learned. He received his theological training in Paris and married his son to a Norwegian princess. Many fables have survived through the centuries about Sæmundur.

In one of these fables Sæmundur made an agreement with the devil to transport him in the guise of a seal from France to Iceland. If this was successfully accomplished without wetting Sæmundur's clothes he promised to work for the devil ever after. Just off the coast of Iceland, Sæmundur hit the seal on the head with an enormous book. The seal sank and Sæmundur waded ashore to do the work of God in his country.

This parable illustrates vividly the power of knowledge in the form of a book over evil and ignorance; a point of view very relevant to the librarian guiding young students in their search for knowledge.

The school librarian's task is complimentary to that of the teacher. The teacher's primary role is to present to his pupils the education material stipulated by regulations of each country or school authority. The librarians task is to go beyond that, and offer innumerable avenues of individual or group study, and to satisfy youthful curiosity and creativity. The education law of most countries pay lip service to the principle that each student should receive an individual education suited to his or her own needs and talents. This formal goal seems to have defeated the endeavours of most educational authorities.

However, much can be accomplished in the school library, and the individualizing of

education is one of the most important roles of the librarian.

In Iceland high level of literacy has prevailed through the centuries and the literary tradition is strong. Contrary to most other countries, literary activity in Iceland has never been confined to one section of the population. Literacy was achieved in the past centuries by the almost universal practise of children learning to read and write in the home. The Church also played an important part. After it was discovered in the middle of the eighteenth century that literacy was in decline in Iceland, formal instructions were given that those in charge of children were to see to that they were taught to read and write; and the Church was given the duty of overseeing this task. The remarkable results of this political decision was that by 1800 illiteracy had been almost eliminated.

Until this century most children learned to read and write in the home. It is therefore interesting to know what books were available on an ordinary farm.

Studies spanning the time from 1750-1830 show, that the average farm library consisted of the New Testament, a book of sermons by bishop Jón Vídalín, Passion Psalms by the clergyman Hallgrímur Pétursson, several hymn books, one or two prayer books and possibly a book on law.

The contrast to the variety of books and other teaching material available today, only 150 years later, is overwhelming. To organize this enormous material and make it accessible to pupils and teachers is a demanding task, and conferences like this one are very valuable, as they give librarians from all over the world the opportunity to discuss the problems and to share their experience and expertise.

Literature has always been at the center of Icelandic cultural life and therefore it is a great privilege to open the 16th Annual Conference of the International Association of School Librarianship, and welcome the participants from abroad to Iceland.

THE SCHOOL LIBRARY. - GATEWAY TO KNOWLEDGE

Keynote Address

Jónas Pálsson

President of the Association, Michael Cooke,
Distinguished guests,
Ladies and gentlemen,

My talk is divided into two sections. In the first part I will briefly touch on some views held by authorities in our time on the nature of knowledge. I will then give a few examples of how educationalists and teachers look at knowledge and mention the influence of technological advances in communication on the development of schools and teachers' work. Finally I will say something about the role of the school library and what challenges it may face in the near future.

I want to remind you, indeed emphasize most strongly, that I am speaking on this topic as a laymen. Since I am not a librarian but an educational psychologist my theoretical concerns and references may appeal more to educationalists than to librarians.

Preparing this paper has made it very clear to me how central the conference topic is for education today and how appropriate it is that librarians and teachers have a forum where they can discuss the many professional problems they share and the social issues they have to face. - So much for explanations and preliminaries.

The title of my talk is: "The School Library - a gateway to knowledge". - It seems therefore appropriate to make some attempt to indicate what is meant by the concept of knowledge which is so central to education and indeed to all areas of life.

The word "knowledge" has many meanings depending on the context and the subject under discussion. Its meaning can range all the way from usage in every day speech to being a technical, abstract concept in epistemology; that part of philosophy which formally deals with knowledge in logical and theoretical terms. -

It is beyond the scope of this address to describe the different theoretical definitions of knowledge as presented by the various philosophical schools let alone my inability to do so. - However, I find it useful to give you a short account of some points of view regarding knowledge in order to clarify my own position.

From an epistemological point of view I am a realist. Simply put, being a realist means that there is a world "out there", the physical universe. It exists independently of me as an observant knowing being. - It was there before I was born and it will continue to exist after I die.

In explaining further my position towards knowledge I have selected two eminent philosophers, Karl R. Popper and John Macmurray, who in their theorizing have a very different position regarding the role of knowledge in philosophy and in human life. Popper's writings have been widely publicised but John Macmurray, who held a chair in Moral Philosophy at Edinburgh University for many years after the Second World War, is relatively unknown. The views these writers present appeal to me but for quite different reasons.

Popper expresses his basic thesis concisely and simply in the following way:

"I will point out that, without taking the words 'world' or 'universe' too seriously, we may distinguish the following three worlds or universes: first, the world of physical objects or of physical states; secondly, the world of states and consciousness, or of mental states, or perhaps of behavioural dispositions to act; and thirdly, the world of objective contents of thought, especially of scientific and poetic thoughts and of works of art." (K.R. Popper, 1972, p. 106). Popper is arguing against what he calls the "belief philosophers" or in his own words: "those who, like Descartes, Locke, Berkeley, Hume, Kant or Russell, are interested in our subjective beliefs, and their basis or origins". Against the views of these writers Popper, at least partly, presents his third world of knowledge.-

According to Popper our problem is - using his own words - "to find better and bolder theories; and that critical preference counts, but not beliefs"

Popper is arguing for the independent existence of his 'third world' which consists of objective knowledge in the scientific meaning. I think the best way to give you some hints about Popper's thought is to cite him again. "Among the inmates of my "third world" are, more especially, theoretical systems; but inmates just as important are problems and problem situations." (Popper, 1972, p. 107).

"And I will argue", Popper continues, "that the most important inmates of this world are critical arguments and what may be called - in analogy to a physical state or a state of consciousness - the state of a discussion or the state of a critical argument; and of course the contents of journals, books and libraries" (Op.cit.p.107).

His opponents admit, as Popper knows, that there are "problems, conjectures, theories, arguments, journals and books". But they contend these entities are essentially

symbolic or linguistic **expressions** of subjective mental states or perhaps behavioural dispositions to act" (Op.cit.p.107). This Popper seems to deny. His arguments - and here I want to stress my limited knowledge of his theoretical writings - gives me the impression that the subjective knower, the agent relying on his consciousness, is as far as knowledge is concerned, merely looked upon as some kind of an organic intermediary who temporarily is acting (or perhaps rather reacting) in a biological/social system. - The reason may be that Popper has not chosen it as his specific role to write in detail about the "inmates" of his "second world"; the world of living men and women, which in his theoretical system are presented as "the world states of consciousness, or of mental states". This, on the other hand, for Macmurray is the real world for independent agents, acting freely as persons in terms of each other. - I will shortly try to give you a glimpse into this world of John Macmurray, which seems so different from Popper's, although, as I read them, they have many basic theoretical ideas in common. - But neither do I have enough time now nor am I qualified to lead you further along into the "secret gardens" of Popperian ideas.

(I want to make it very clear that the few citations above from only one of Popper's essays is far from giving a fair idea of his wide-ranging theoretical contributions in the philosophy and methodology of science as well as in many other fields of knowledge. K.R. Popper is, as most people know, a powerful advocate of individualism, personal responsibility and freedom of expression. The few and rather accidental citations I give here can therefore be rather misleading and should only be considered as a crude attempt to create a contrast between sharply limited aspects of the two philosophers).

John Macmurray was a professor in Moral Philosophy at Edinburgh University after the Second World War until in the early seventies. He was a brilliant lecturer and author of several books. Yet somehow he has never become a part of the philosophical main-stream in spite of all his academic learning and theoretical originality. Or maybe that is a part of it. For one thing, in his writings he refers only indirectly to other philosophers. - I was not Macmurray's student except I attended a beginners' course in moral philosophy which was compulsory for students in psychology at the University. But his philosophical ideas and his way of "interpreting the universe", which is the title of one of his books, has always appealed to me. Maybe it is because he made an explicit attempt to construct a methodological frame of reference for psychology as an academic discipline.- Anyway his books are still eminently readable and I recommend them to you.

John Macmurray's theory of knowledge is the direct opposite of Popper's views on the matter. - That is one reason why I mention him to you as an example and secondly because Macmurray's academic interpretation helped to clarify my own, implicit and

unsystematic way of seeing the world. -

I will now in a few sentences try to give you an idea of Macmurray's world.

1. Macmurray in his philosophical work is primarily concerned with a theory of action and only indirectly and as part of that theory does he define knowledge. This has wide implications. The most important one is of course that for human beings action is primary, but reflective thinking secondary.

2. Unity of theory and practice is, as I understand it, a major tenet of Macmurray's system. He is consequently trying to refute dualism in every form and his basic conception of the world is holistic. This is in direct contrast to Popper's theory which is pluralistic and rejects holistic systems as infantile and logically untenable; frequently, leading socially and politically to some kind of state control and totalitarianism.

3. The underlying premise for the above statements and, in my opinion, all Macmurray's construction, is his definition of the concept "immediate experience". His interpretation of it cannot be brought to you in a few sentences. - The best I can do is give you some samples from his own writings, misleading as such quotations usually are. Here are some on this central points. (All of my citations are from his book: *Interpreting the Universe*.)

"Immediate experience is, by definition, experience which has not been thought about". (Macmurray 1952, p. 13) "All thought presupposes knowledge. It is not possible to think about something that you do not already know." (p. 15). And here comes a sentence which should in its simplicity give you a clue to what he means:

"Men knew the world they lived in long before science was thought of. And in some ways, perhaps, they knew it better and more intimately than most of us know it today, since we took to living in towns and travelling in motor cars. That immediate knowledge of the world which is the effortless result of living in it and working with it and struggling against it has a much higher claim to be taken as the type of human knowledge than anything that science either has or can make possible." (p. 16).

And this leads directly to Macmurray's interpretation of science and its role in a theory of knowledge:

"The understanding of the world which we gain through science can never be a substitute of the experience of it that we have in the normal unreflective process of living. Apart from this experience, indeed, all scientific conclusions would be completely meaningless, with no significance of any kind." (p. 17)

I am sure you have noticed the contrast with Popper's theory of knowledge and his

"third world" of objective, scientific knowledge. - But Karl Popper has very little to say about knowledge as represented in his "second world", where people are presented as states of consciousness. Macmurray takes a directly opposite stand when he writes:

"Knowledge, then, is first and foremost that immediate experience of things which is prior to all expression and understanding. Upon this primary knowledge all reflection and all thought are based. This perhaps is especially obvious in our knowledge of people." (p. 17)

As it appears to me, knowledge for Popper is objective and impersonal and the subjective experience of this knowledge is only secondary; almost a nuisance from the scientific point of view. Feelings and personal motives make objective thinking unreliable and incidental. -

What for Macmurray constitutes knowledge and makes it "real" is its personal quality as it is lived in unity of feeling and action, theory and practice through immediate experience or to quote him directly:

"Its aspect [i.e. immediate experience] as knowledge, for instance, is not a separable part of it. It is unified with and co-extensive with feeling and action. It is our consciousness in living rather than our consciousness of living. In immediate experience we know anything by being interested in it, by desiring it, by loving or hating it, and above all, by doing things with it."

I will end this comparison of the two thinkers reflecting on the nature of knowledge by what they agree on in spite of their different conclusions. I think both are realists in the sense that the physical world "exists out there". Secondly they seem to agree, in many respects, when they describe the role of reflective thought, science and philosophy. Macmurray has this to say on reflection. "Thought is mental activity only, and as common sense tells us, mental activity is not real activity. We cannot escape from the contrast between thinking and acting. We cannot help recognizing that when we are only thinking we are doing nothing. It is this effort to make thought a substitute for action, independent of action for its completion, that constitutes intellectualism. Intellectualism is the neurosis which results from the desire to escape from the necessity of action by spinning out thought to infinity." (p. 24-25)

In spite of their fundamentally different interpretation of science in general and its role in culture they cannot escape sharing a common ground to some extent or so it seems to me. For both of them science and philosophy are reflective disciplines although their interpretations are different. I suppose Popper would agree to the following words of Macmurray about the rise of science and its underlying function in civilization:

"In the Renaissance, we can trace the beginnings of a human self-assertion against

the world. We can see humanity shaking itself out of sleep and awakening to the possibility of escaping from the old tradition of submission to fate." "The condition of such control is understanding. / Science arose as the effort to understand the material world in order to dominate and use it." (p. 146)

It is my firm belief that it is useful, even essential, for professionals like educators, teachers and librarians to clarify their own personal views regarding the nature of knowledge and from that standpoint face present day issues in information theories and related developments in the technology of communication. Therefore I have deliberately spent a considerable part of my address presenting to you this aspect of our topic. - I know however there may be some who do not agree with me on this point.

But before I finish this part of my talk I want to make my own position clearer although I guess my biases have already come through.

For me action is primary to reflection. I am something of an instrumentalist when it comes to considering intelligence and the role of consciousness. For me, like Macmurray, what finally matters is the personal and we are only human in so far as we can act in terms of each other as persons. The personal must transcend the organic and social in so far as we hope to succeed in civilizing our existence and our society. - This is only possible, as I see it, if we perceive ourselves as active, independent agents. The objective world of knowledge, as represented by scientific formulas and texts, will remain inert and meaningless, even somehow become a monstrosity, unless it is, as an institution, brought into a living relationship with men and women of successive generations.

This will only be possible if the personnel - the workers - become conscious of their professional roles, - not as passive gatekeepers in these new citadels of facts and information- but as active, responsible agents assisting new generations, old and young, to find the facts, change them into knowledge which gives meaning to their personal lives. - I would like to refer you as librarians to a dissertation by Kristín Indriðadóttir M.A., chief librarian at the University College of Education in Iceland, which I think is quite relevant on this point. (Kristín Indriðadóttir, 1976, p. 70)

I have now given you glimpses, in fact rather extreme examples, of what two philosophers see as real knowledge. Let me now address the other part of my topic: the School library.

Again I want to remind you that I am not a librarian and have only very general notions when it comes to such specialities as computer science, information science, cybernetics or artificial intelligence just to mention a few sub-areas to theories of knowledge, which are, I think, sometimes loosely referred to as "Cognitive Science".

School libraries or media centres of some kind are in most countries nowadays almost taken for granted as a necessary part of every school, at least this is so in principle. Their size and equipment, however, varies greatly from one country to another and also between schools within the same country. This for example is the case in Iceland although there is a provision in our Education Act of 1974 that every school should have a school library and a minimal number of copies of books. But in small schools this has not everywhere been the case in practice. - It is also interesting to find enlightened articles by Icelandic teachers from around 1900 where they are describing the functions of school libraries and arguing for their establishment. Their ideas, although general, sound remarkably modern. (St. Sigurðsson, 1908).

The recent increases in scientific knowledge - sometimes referred to as the knowledge explosion - paralleled by enormous strides in technology - particularly in the areas of communication and information sciences, have brought with them fundamental changes in almost all areas of life, at least in the so called developed countries of the world, - so much so that we are said to be entering a new historical stage characterized by an entirely different kind of society - the so called post-industrial society, mentioned earlier in my talk. -

Whether this is so or not, great technological and social changes are taking place and at great rapidity. I want you also to notice that I am not saying that the present technological development is directly "caused" by scientific knowledge, but merely that we can observe an obvious correlation between these phenomena.

I might perhaps mention to you an article by Peter Wegner bearing the title: "Paradigms of Information Engineering" (Wegner 1983) where he is playing with some very interesting analogies or parallels between historical periods and developments.

"The industrial revolution, which occurred in the period 1750-1950, was concerned with harnessing energy to serve man. The information revolution, which started around 1950 and is currently in full swing, is concerned with harnessing information to serve man. The industrial revolution was concerned with developing machines to replace manual labour, while the information revolution is concerned with developing machines that replace mental labour." (p. 169)

Notice here the similarity with Macmurray's characterization of science, I gave you earlier. And Wegner points out the well known fact that the industrial revolution caused changes in life style from rural to predominantly urban society. This in its turn led to a "shift of political power from land-based aristocracy" to an "industrial establishment whose power was based on controlling the mechanism for industrial production". -

Wegner then goes on arguing that the information revolution is causing changes in technology and life style similar to those of the industrial revolution or in his own words: "Power is shifting from the industrial establishments to those who control the dissemination and distribution of information. Computers are playing an increasing role not only in the management of society but also in the management of knowledge." (p. 170)

Wegner is here expressing very forcefully what I intended to make the crux of my address, namely: Knowledge, just as Socrates maintained thousand years ago, is power. But it is only potential power. My question today is, "who controls the economic/social and political power embedded in our ever-increasing storage of (objective) knowledge?" What institutions or professions have invested authority, willingness and competence to provide guidance and protection for ordinary men and women, young and adult, to use and benefit from these new resources? Obviously this is a social/political question. That being so, scientists, educators, teachers, librarians and media people and the whole academic and professional establishment, throw up their hands in helplessness and shout in one great choir: We cannot do anything, this is not our concern. Ours is to serve, to take orders and attend to our daily duties. The most we can do is to unite in demanding better working conditions and increased services, higher salaries and longer vacations and in that way become more humane and give the best we have to our clients and our families. - And that is all!! But my answer is: That is not enough. You have - we all have - obligations which reach beyond that. As one of those professionals who act as gatekeepers of knowledge you have a special responsibility. Depending on your understanding of the complicated forces at work in the areas of your profession, shouldering that responsibility is an essential part of your job.- I am sure that the main purpose of this conference is to help you do just that. -

Education in a wide context is of course at the centre of our topic. Exploring the relationship between knowledge and education in general and as provided in schools is also essential to our discussion but its treatment would need a special paper. In my concluding remarks I will therefore confine myself to problems related to the professional education of school librarians and other professionals or personnel working in media centres or learning technology departments in schools.

The chairman of this conference Sigrún Klara Hannesdóttir, read a paper at a seminar held in Costa Rica in December 1978 bearing the title: "Education of School Librarians - some alternatives". Although almost ten years old it is still worth considering. In this paper, dr. Sigrún Klara Hannesdóttir first answered the question

why schools in our times need school libraries and she gives two reasons: One is the rapid increase and accumulation of knowledge and the other, more sociological in nature, relates to the multiple changes in society and the complexity of life which make it absolutely necessary to change from static methods of rote learning often from only one textbook to "the active participation of students who learn new methods, learn how to acquire information and utilize information sources".

I am in complete agreement with her analyses and make them my own. Dr. Sigrún Klara Hannesdóttir then goes on to describe the education of school librarians taking especially into account the needs of schools in the developing countries with their limited resources. She emphasizes, quite correctly in my opinion, because of educational and social changes, that the school librarian "needs more preparation than the average school teacher". She also expresses the opinion that "the optimal goal for the education of school librarians is a dual qualification for the actual school librarians, i.e. professional librarians and professional teachers", but she adds that this is an unrealistic goal in the near future.

I do indeed agree with the view that the personnel, or at least those in charge of school libraries or media centres, should be well qualified and need special education in addition, for example, to a teacher's B.Ed. degree. But may I also ask this conference to take other aspects of the problem into consideration.

We know - and it has been an underlying theme in this address - that our societies are undergoing changes. Socialization of children and child-rearing, in addition to formal education, is therefore increasingly being transferred from the family to the schools. There are also good grounds to believe that children and youth today require different skills and knowledge from those of their parents. Would it not seem likely to you that the schools of the future - say in 15-20 years time - would have to change their aims and methods if they are to serve the needs of their communities, however imperfectly? - Undoubtedly. And that renewal depends above all on the teachers and their work. If this is the case, as I guess it is, then we almost certainly will have to make changes - probably drastic changes in the professional education of our teachers to fit the job descriptions of the schools and the demands of the public.

From what I can gather - and I repeat that my factual knowledge about the education of librarians today is very limited indeed - there are divided opinions about the discipline of librarianship, its subject matter and professional orientation vis a vis the new disciplines, or areas of knowledge, like computer science and more particularly information science.

It is notoriously difficult to predict the future and my feeling is that it is even

unusually difficult in these matters and at this particular juncture in time.

But even so I am absolutely certain there will be great changes over the next 15-20 years in the knowledge and information sectors. These changes will unavoidably be reflected in the roles of educators, teachers, librarians, information specialists and media people of all kinds. These will be the primary gatekeepers of cultural knowledge in the post-industrial society of tomorrow. Their initial education will no doubt change considerably in coming years and there may be difficulties ahead when new job descriptions make themselves felt in the work market. School librarians and teachers in particular may well have to face great adaptations in their traditional roles - indeed it is almost certain!

May I in this connection bring to your attention two articles which recently came into my hands. One of them has the heading "New Information Technologies in Education - Lessons Learned and Trends Observed", by Plomp and de Wolde, published in the European Journal of Education in 1985. The other, by K.G. Collier bears the title: "Learning Technology Departments and Institutional Management Policy" and was published in the British Journal of Educational Technology in 1983. Both articles argue convincingly for new roles for media centres and educational technology in schools. Their kind of learning/teaching centre would completely transform the present image and role of an ordinary school library; even those which belong to the progressive type. - Both articles see these technological services and the learning methods accompanying them as offering students and teachers new possibilities enhancing their "intuitive, creative and holistic qualities". Collier gives a list of nine task-areas which his "Learning Technology Department" would be in charge of. Included in this list, in addition to traditional supportive services, storage and distribution of teaching and learning materials, there would be production of such materials, specialized advice on planning of new courses, consultancy services, staff development courses and research opportunities for teachers.

This type of media centre would not only replace the traditional school library but radically transform the school itself which implies great changes in how we educate the people who control access to information as mentioned earlier. These articles, and there are probably hundreds of others recently published, indicate the great changes we may expect in a few years and the different reception they will meet with.

Talking about the School library and how it may change it is almost unavoidable to ask what part the book and the printed text in general will play in the future.

This is also a particularly appropriate question here in Iceland where books and literature have played such an important part in our culture and in preserving our national

identity.

My guess is, and again let us remind ourselves how difficult it is to predict the future, that the book, and the printed and written text, will remain with us for a long time to come. There may be further modifications in its format and technical production but basically it will keep its place in the culture. Particularly I think this will apply to language as a form of art in literature and other modes of the expressive dialogue between people. But the preservation of the bulk of printed matter will change radically; a process already well under way.

It is also quite likely that much of the technical and practical information, including mathematical and logical material, will be preserved and presented to students and other users in a different medium, probably something similar to the present-day computer. - This is, in my opinion, part of the great changes which will take place in teaching and school work over the coming years. The renewed school library or if you prefer, the learning technology department, will play a decisive role in this transformation of schools as centres of education for men and women at all ages.

I have already taken too much of your valuable time. - Allow me, however, as a final summing up to share with you some main-points which I see as important.

First I will make explicit three assumptions which I should perhaps have stated at the beginning of my talk.

1. I look upon librarians, and certainly school-librarians, as part of the educational personnel working in schools and other educational institutions. - If the school librarians are not directly teachers, they must be seen as para-professionals with the educators.

2. The educational establishment as a whole must always be analyzed within its own economic / social and cultural context. This may be stating the obvious but is non the less very important.

3. There is a certain major breakthrough related to communication and technology which seems to have initiated new stages in recent history.

These are e.g. the development of the adoption of an alphabet, the technique of printing in the 15th century and in recent times the invention of telecommunication systems, the Radio and T.V. and now computer technology. - Probably we who are now living are passing through the beginning phase of such a stage.

The effects of this new technology upon our culture and our lives will presumably be profound. Our perception of time and hence of change will gradually become radically effected.

Coming back to our topic I suggest to you, what I have repeatedly hinted at, that the great issue confronting us today is the knowledge explosion, accompanied by an

immense technological development especially in the field of communication. I suggest as some others have done recently (i.e. Gevers, 1987; M. van der Dussen, 1987) that this development will bring education as an institution and related fields to the forefront in the public debate and policy-making. - In practical terms this means that we will be confronted more forcefully than ever with the question: Who controls knowledge and education?

This has of course been a latent question since the days of Plato and particularly so in the developed countries during the last 100 years or more. Now these nations, and in a different way the developing countries also, are facing this problem in an acute form as a many-sided dilemma. - Time does not permit me to enlarge on this besides, I am sure, it will be discussed by others at this conference.

One aspect of this new situation, and a very positive one as I see it, is what has been called recently the diversification of education. Simplifying things this means that people, young and adult, will have an opportunity to learn through many channels and need not necessarily have to attend school so and so many hours a day if they want to educate themselves.

Another aspect of the new situation in education is that the world of work, industry and firms, both private and corporate, is openly critical, even hostile, towards the education provided by schools to-day. - And so are many others, among them some labour unions and many parents - not to mention some of the students themselves.

Still another aspect of the educational issue, and a closely related one, is the fact that less and less money is made available for education from central and local authorities. - This is likely to show in lowered overall quality in education at a time when most people feel we should be improving standards and breaking new grounds in methods of teaching and learning.

And the educational personnel, teachers and school-librarians, feel frustrated and more down-graded than ever before. - It seems therefore that the "pax educativa" as one writer has called it (M. van der Dussen, 1987) has finally come to an end in its present form. This may indicate that a new contract will have to be forged between the world of work, the public sector and the Education establishment itself.

There somehow also seems to exist a natural alliance between the world of work, more specifically the business community, and the technology sector of our society. - The business community in some countries is now openly demanding control of education. Obviously there is, for reasons I cannot discuss here, a real danger of tension, if not of direct conflict, between these sections in our societies because they represent in many ways different cultures and conflicting interests. (Gevers, 1987)

There has always in the past been a strong tendency, also among educationalists, to look upon education as a dependent variable in the social / economic structure of society. - Others (e.g. Gevers, 1987) have argued that education should be reckoned with as an independent variable in our present day culture - a strand of its own in the social fabric.

The construction, preservation and especially the transformation of information and data into meaningful, personal knowledge, should be considered equally important for society as the material production of wealth. Educators, including librarians and information specialists, should therefore as professionals demand status and social control on equal footing with other social groups in their communities.

But as we do so we must also bear in mind our obligations. There is no doubt that reform and renewal is necessary within the education sector, in our schools and media centres. We must be careful not to isolate ourselves from the world of work in the various industries and business - On the contrary we must actively try to establish an interactive dialogue with these parties and the community at large in which we live.

I have the conviction that we can as personal agents by coordinating our efforts in social action, create the future to a considerable extent. In this way we can indeed predict the future. But education - quality education - is essential if we are to influence our future in this manner instead of passively adapting to alien forces.

This is, I think, what Jerome Bruner means when he wrote recently (Bruner, 1986) "many worlds are possible and meaning and reality are created and not discovered".

But in order to sustain a vision of this kind and make it real we need to change our schools radically. A new type of school-library would be an essential part of such a renewal. - I hope this conference becomes a step toward innovative work of that kind.

Thank you for your attention.

Postscript.

The writer has made some minor changes in the text of his address from the original manuscript. This is mainly so regarding remarks on points taken from Popper's essay. The writer wants to emphasize, however, that what is of importance in this connection is Popper's highly original and influential idea of the "third world" which I think is most relevant for the role of libraries and media centers as social institutions in the information age of the modern world.

J.P.

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CHILDREN'S VOICES IN HOW TO RESOLVE COMMUNICATIVE CONFLICTS IN SCHOOL SETTINGS: RELATING PSYCHOLOGICAL RESEARCH AND EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

Sigrún Aðalbjarnardóttir

Introduction

It is not uncommon to find students in a classroom situation where they feel as if they have worked hard and well on a piece of academic work, only to discover that their teacher appears to expect them to have done even better. Or in another context, in a small group project among classmates, students may experience a disparity between their own perception of the quality or effort behind their contribution to what peer working-members think of their work. Or in a third context, a teacher may communicate to a student the perception that the student is disturbing a discussion by interrupting with questions or expressions of his or her own opinion, - whereas the student may have felt only a sense of curiosity, initiative or enthusiasm.

Although these conflicting perspectives are not uncommon in the classroom, they are nevertheless often painful, confusing and disequilibrating for the young student. They require on the part of the student, the development of communicative competence in order to work effectively with the other - in these cases either a teacher or a peer - in the process of reaching mutual understanding and to come to an agreement. (Aðalbjarnardóttir & Selman, 1987).

Accordingly, there are two major related themes presented in this paper. First, within the psychological domain, we will explore children's thoughts and feelings in an interview setting about communicative conflict situations. The children discuss classroom dilemmas, in which the participants have different viewpoints on student's work and behavior. Second, within the educational domain, we consider some implications of how educators (classroom teachers, school librarians) can provide

communicative situations in an attempt to promote children's communicative competence and effective conflict resolutions. The focus of the paper involves the questions: How do children between the ages of 7 and 12 propose to react to the criticism of the teacher or the peer when they themselves have a different perspective on the situation than the other does? How can educators attempt to encourage children in school to express their opinions, to stand up for their perspective, and try to reach mutual consensus in conflictual communicative situations?

The same theoretical model is applied as a framework for both studying children's communicative competence and in the endeavor to promote their communicative ability.

1. Theoretical Framework

The theoretical model which is used to describe how children develop the capacity for communicative competence is based on Selman's (Selman, 1981; Selman, Beardslee, Schultz, Krupa, & Podorefsky, 1986) theory of interpersonal negotiation strategies (INS). Like the INS model the present model of interpersonal communicative competence (ICC) integrates three psychological approaches; the functional, or the social information processing approach (Dodge, 1980; Rubin & Krasnor, 1983; Spivack & Shure, 1976), the structural, or the cognitive-developmental approach (Habermas, 1984; Kohlberg, 1969; Selman, 1980), and finally the approach of stylistic differences in interpersonal orientation (Jung, 1950; Noam, 1985).

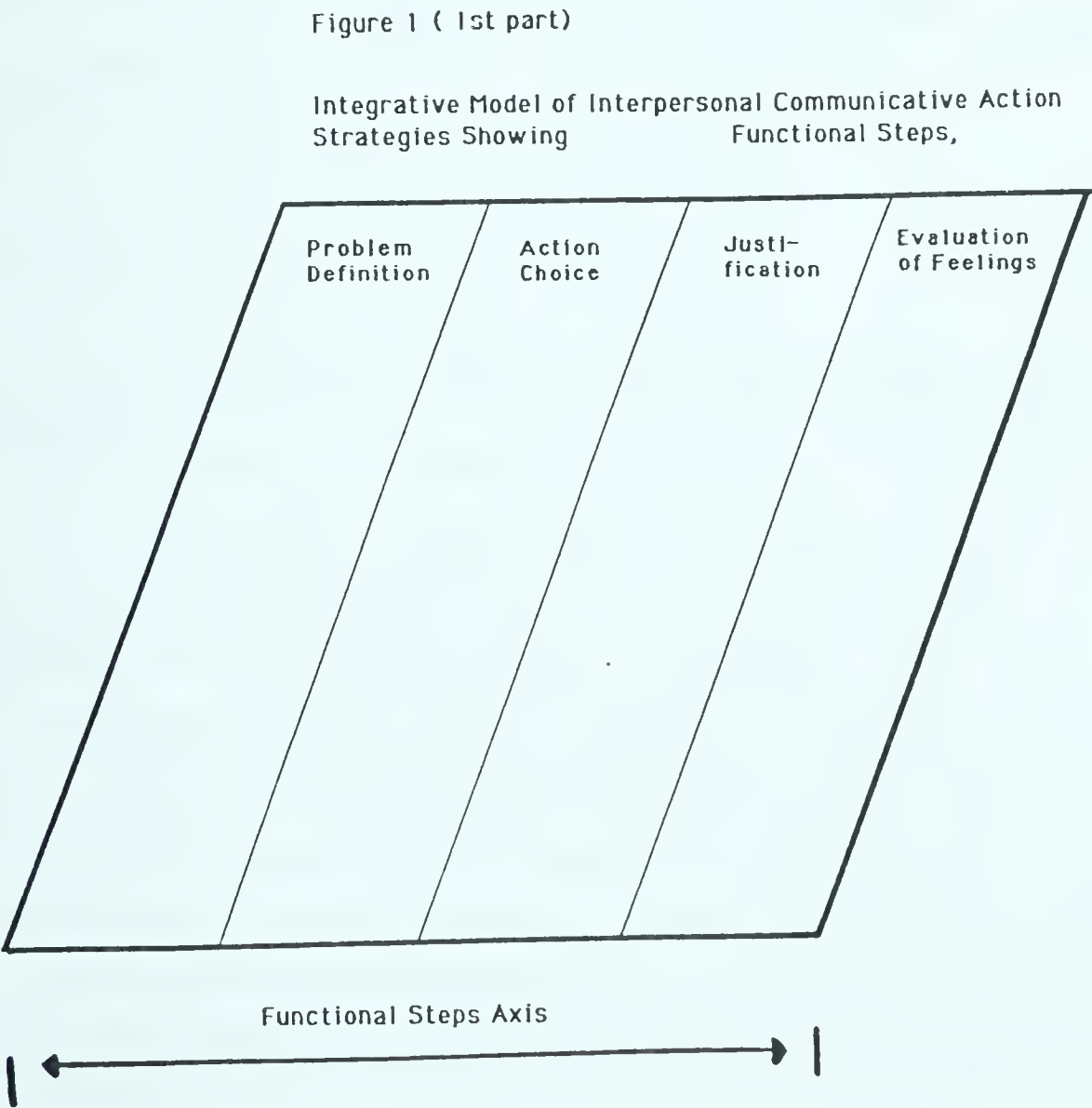
The model draws upon a dilemma-based interview method (Selman et al., 1986). In the present study it involves posing the three classroom dilemmas introduced earlier to students between the ages of 7 and 12, and asking them questions posed by both functional and structural considerations.

The functional component of the model involves analyzing and assessing communicative competence by breaking it down into a sequence of "horizontal" steps in the communicative process. In the present study, we have identified and asked questions that focus on four steps in the communicative process: As Figure 1 illustrates, the first step is to explore how the subject defines the problem of the communicative situation in the dilemma. During the interview, the questions the subject deals with are: What is the problem here? Why is that a problem?

The second step is to explore what type of action the subject proposes to take to solve the problem with the teacher or the peer. The question to the subject is: How can (the student) deal with the teacher or the peer? The third step is to explore how the subject justifies the proposed action: The question is: Why is that a good way to "deal" with the teacher or the peer? Finally, the fourth step is to explore how the subject evaluates the feelings of two participants. The question to the subject is: How do they feel? Why do they feel that way?

Subjects' responses and reasons in each of these four functional steps are classified in this model according to one of four "vertical" levels. This is the structural component of the model and is illustrated in Figure 1 (2nd part).

Figure 1



These levels are based on how well the subject considers and coordinates the perspectives of each of the parties involved (Selman, 1980).

Below we consider a few examples of responses classified at different levels in dealing with the dilemma context where there are conflicting opinions between the student and the teacher over student's school-work. Birna (Björn) thinks she (he) works hard in school-lessons. One day, however, after class her (his) teacher says she (he) doesn't work hard enough in school-lessons.

The functional step of justification of action is used as an example to introduce different structural levels in the model. A unilateral response classified at level 1 shows that an intention of action is considered only from one person's perspective. For example, a subject justifies her proposed action (e.g. "I will try to work better") by arguing "because then the teacher will stop saying she works poorly". This subject chooses a specific action in order to protect herself from the teacher's comments on her work and her motivation appears to be to stop the teacher telling her that her work is poor. In this way her justification of action is one-way oriented; she only takes her own perspective into account. A response, classified at level 2, would be one that showed the subject's reciprocal perspective-taking, however, with dominant effects of action for one of the participants concerned. An example of a response after proposing an action (e.g. "Asks to be forgiven, says she's sorry over not having realized this") is as follows: "Just then the teacher may be better aware that she'll stop doing this... the teacher will then know he can trust her". This subject's emphasis is on the teacher becoming aware of the student's intentions, implying the reciprocity that if she tells the teacher what she thinks, the teacher will then understand what is going on and trust her to work better. In this example, even though this subject expresses a reciprocity in thinking about the interaction between the student and the teacher, the concern for the teacher's awareness appears to be the dominant one. Justification of action classified at level 3 involves bridging both perspectives with positive effects of action for both actors. If we take another subject's proposed action (e.g. "If I worked as hard as I could I would just get the teacher to understand that I couldn't do any better work, but I think I would also try to improve") then an example of a justification for the action classified at level 3 is as follows: "The teacher may then see that I can do better work and comment on it. Then I would have a better knowledge of how the teacher feels and what he thinks about my work. Then I would try to improve to get higher marks in exams... then one sees what one knows, is pleased, and ones parents are proud of one... The teacher may also feel better to see that

we were able to work this out". (Adalbjarnardottir, 1986).

Finally, the action choice step of the model is classified according to individual differences in style of interaction, - a variable called interpersonal orientation. This component is illustrated as the triangle in Figure 1. (Selman & Schultz, in press).

Figure 1 (2nd part)

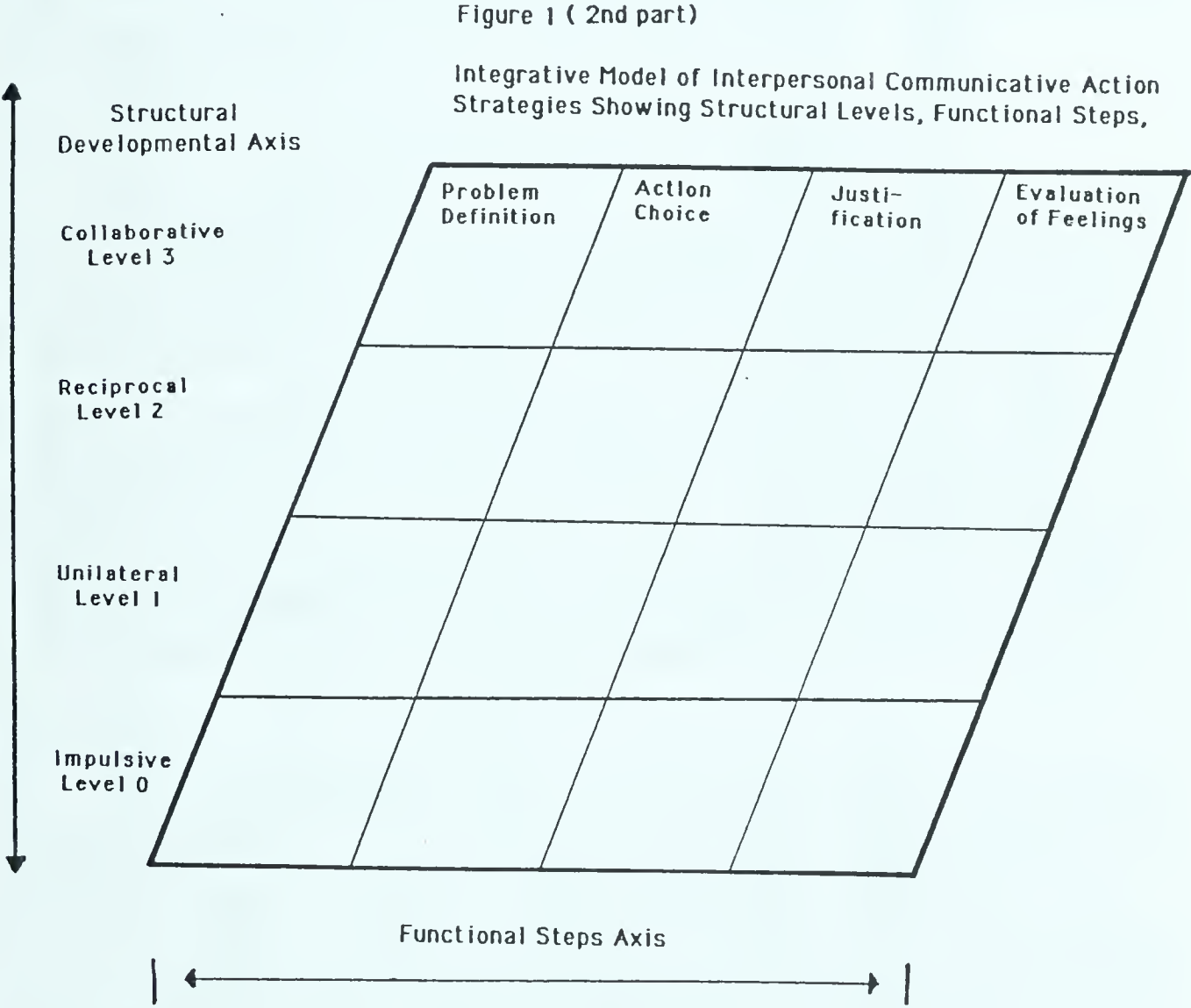
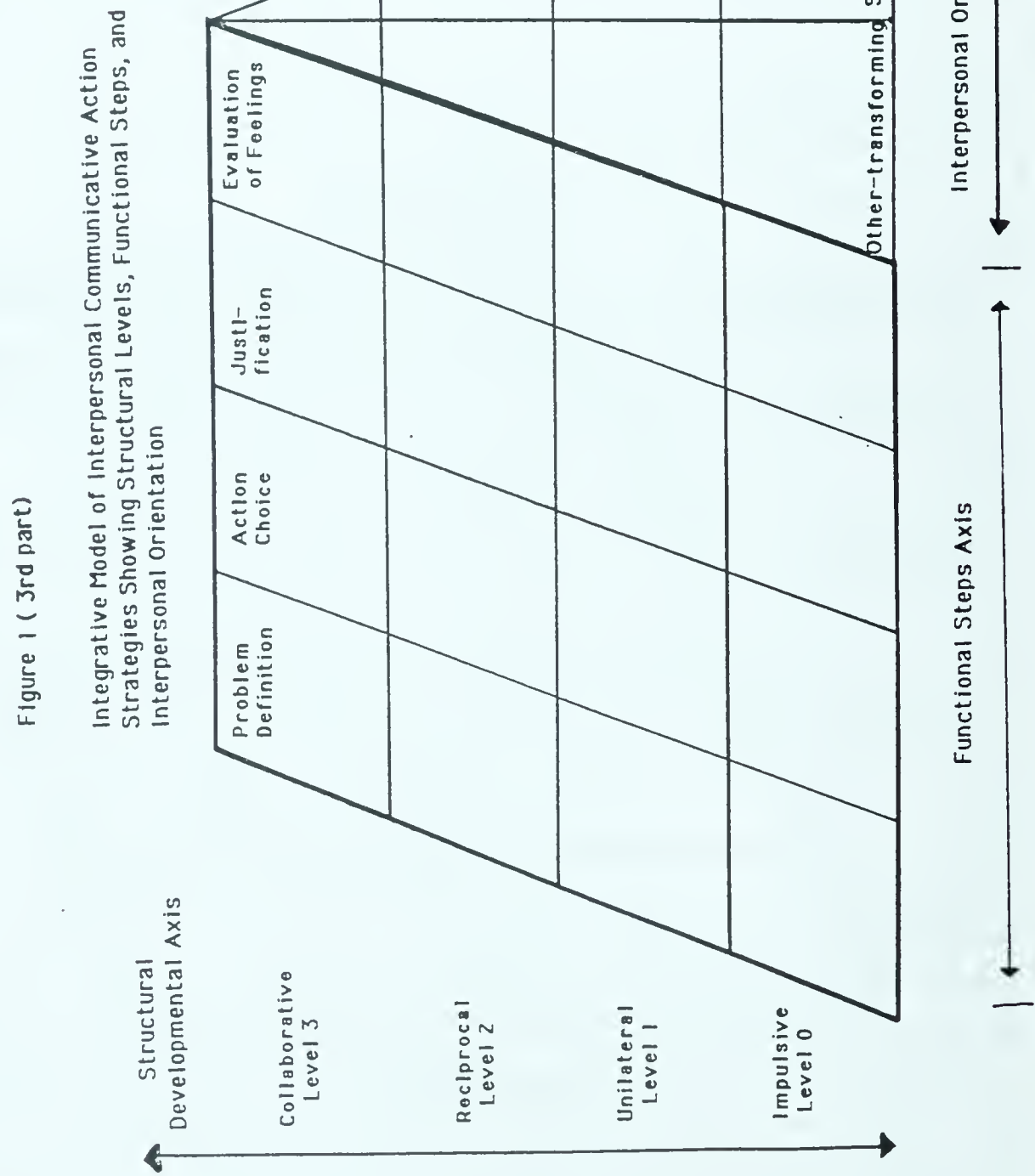


Figure 1 (3rd part)



In the model there is a distinction between three major types of interpersonal orientation. First, a "self-transforming" orientation refers to whether the subject proposes to transform the action or perspective of the self to abide by the wishes or point of view of the other, for example saying to the teacher when teacher criticizes his or her work: "I will try to work harder" to please the teacher. Second, an "other transforming" orientation indicates that the subject proposes to change the teacher's or peer's opinion to conform to the desires of the self, for example by saying to the teacher: "But I feel I work well enough". Finally, when the subject appears to attempt to be collaborative in his or her action and emphasizes the importance of discussing and working the problem out together, the action is classified as collaborative orientation. As Figure 1 (3rd part) indicates level 3 actions are defined as collaborative.

2. The Study of Children's Communicative Competence

2.1. Aims

The aim of the present research was to use the model just described to study three topics. The first and second were to explore possible age and gender differences in children's communicative competence as they consider conflicting points of view in classroom dilemmas. The third, and perhaps most interesting from the perspective of the integration of psychological and sociological perspectives, was to explore how communicative competence is effected by variation in two contextual components. These components are illustrated in Figure 2 and consist of (1) whether the problem being communicated with the teacher is over student's classroom-behavior, or student's school-work (a variation in "problem"), and (2) whether the conflictual issue (student's school-work) is being communicated with a teacher or a peer (a variation in "role").

2.2. Method

Sixty children between the ages of 7 and 12 from a Comprehensive Primary School in Reykjavík, Iceland, participated in this dilemma- discussion study. Ten children, five boys and five girls, were selected from each grade level, 1 to 6.

Three brief classroom dilemmas which focus on problems in communication of differing perspectives were developed (Adalbjarnardottir, 1986) and presented to each of the subjects in an interview setting. In the first dilemma a student wants to ask many questions or express his or her opinion, but the teacher feels the student is disturbing the rest of the class with interruptions. In the second dilemma a student feels he or she is working to the best of his or her ability, but the teacher expresses the feeling that he or

she is not. In the third dilemma a student feels he or she is contributing to a group work, but a peer in the group expresses a conflicting perspective. The gender of the protagonist was matched with that of the respondent, and the subjects were told the protagonist was someone about the same age as they.

Each subject was interviewed individually and when he or she had heard a dilemma he or she in turn was asked to define the nature of the problem, think about a way to communicate with the teacher/peer, justify the action, and finally express the participants' feelings.

Audiotapes of the interviews were transcribed. A scoring manual (Adalbjarnardottir, 1986) was used to code subjects' responses.

2.3. Results and Discussion

It should come as no great surprise that the research (Adalbjarnardóttir, 1986; Adalbjarnardottir & Selman, 1987) supports the hypothesis that as elementary school children grow older, they exhibit a movement from impulsive or unilateral forms of communicative competence to reciprocal with hints of collaborative forms. These later developing forms of communicative competence involve an increasing capacity for self-reflection, awareness of the perspectives of others, and verbal reciprocity. Furthermore, for the most part, girls and boys do not differ significantly in their level of communicative competence.

The results revealed that children exhibit significantly more reciprocal communicative competence in a situation where the teacher criticizes the student's school work than when he or she criticizes the student's class behavior. They show more reciprocal communicative competence in dealing with a peer compared with the teacher. Furthermore, they also proposed significantly more assertive (or other-transforming) actions when it comes to dealing with peers and significantly more submissive (or self-transforming) actions when dealing with the authority of the teacher. These findings imply that children feel freer to stand up for themselves, and to express how they feel and think when they communicate with a peer than when communicating with a teacher. It is interesting, that there were no sex differences in interpersonal orientation for any of the dilemmas. It had been expected that girls, in particular in communicating with the teacher, would be more often submissive or self-transforming in their orientation than the boys, - but both girls and boys proposed similar interpersonal orientations.

The most intriguing empirical finding of this study, is in the way children propose communicative actions in the conflict situation, (that is their communicative action choice or the second functional step in the model). Here the subjects did not exhibit the expected

developmental growth with age as was found in each of the other three steps in the functional aspect of the model.

Figure 2

Diagram of Two Contextual Comparisons: (a) Problem: Teacher Criticizes either Class-Behavior or School-Work;
(b) Role: School-Work is criticized either by a Teacher or a Peer.

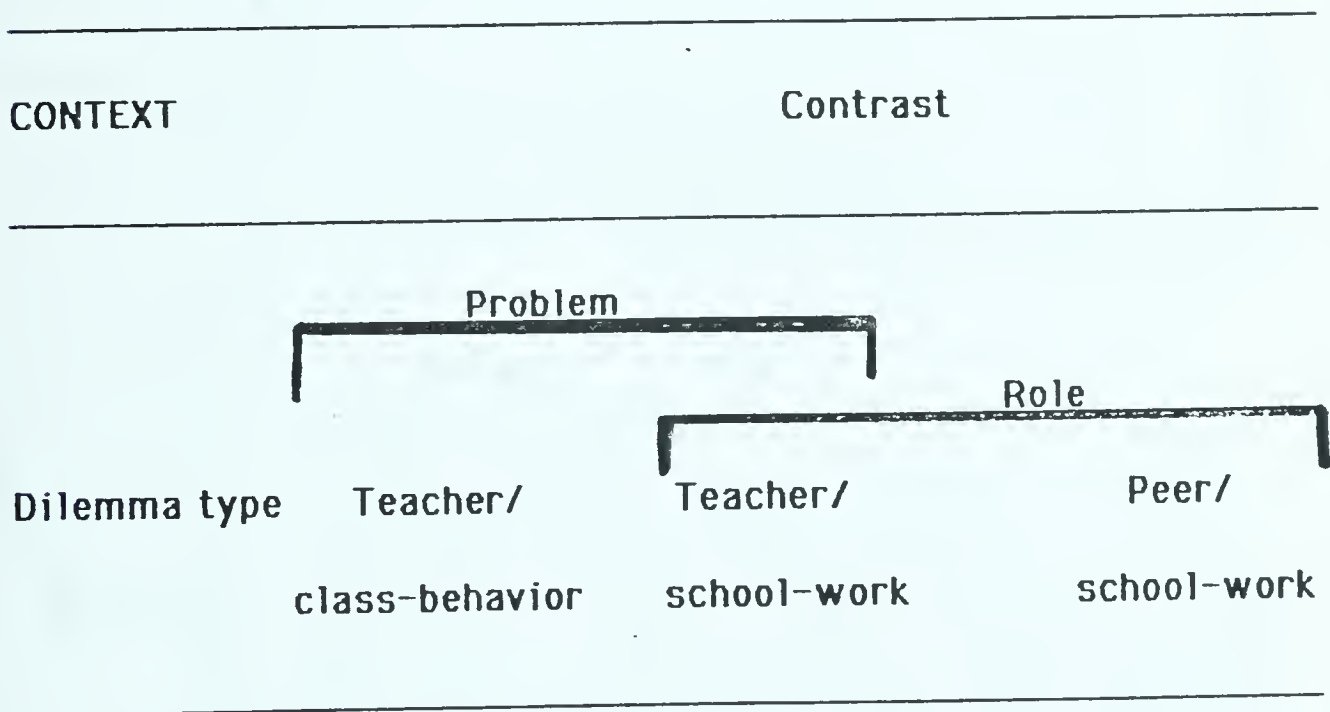
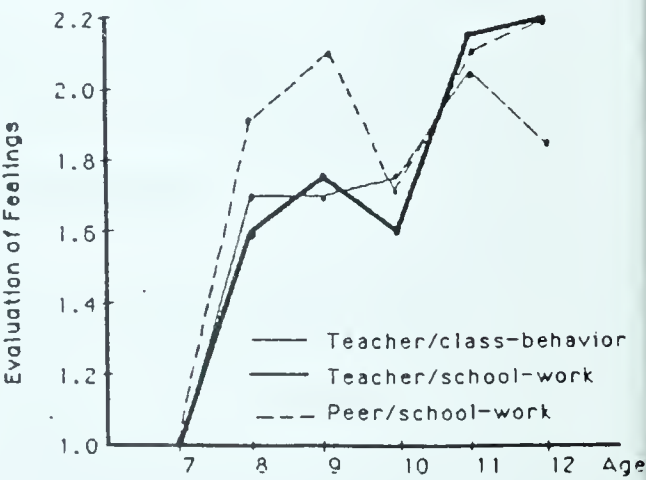
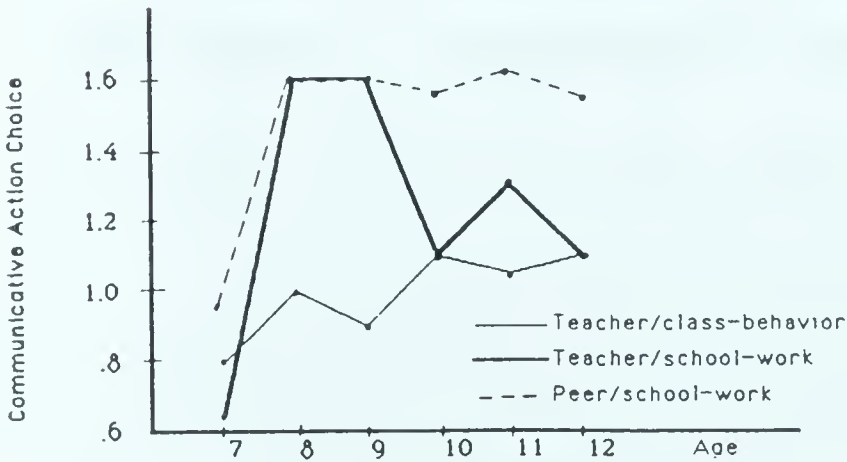
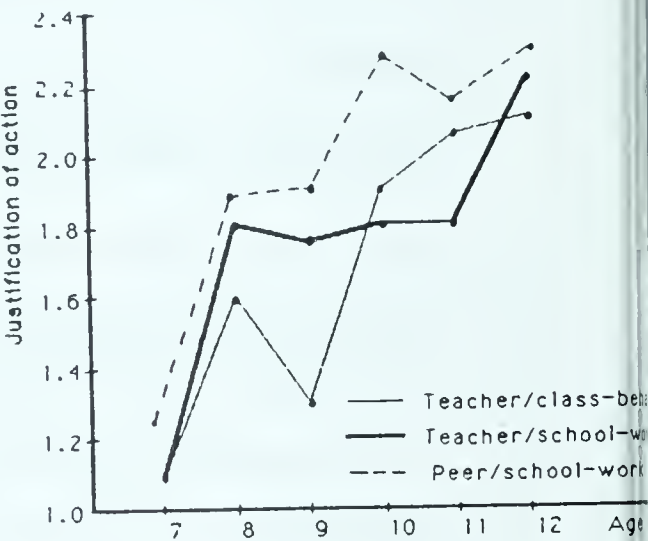
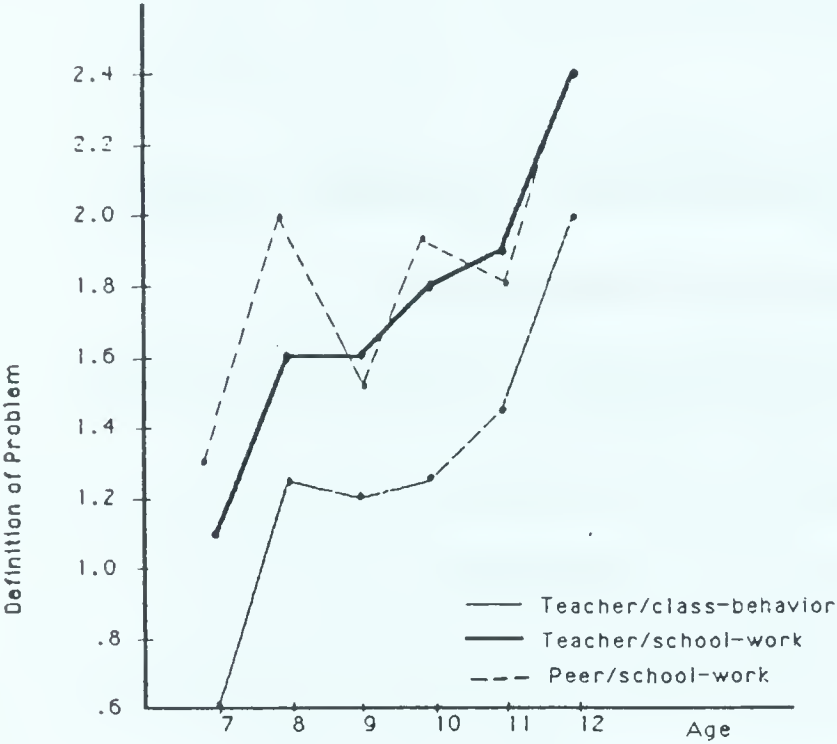


Figure 3

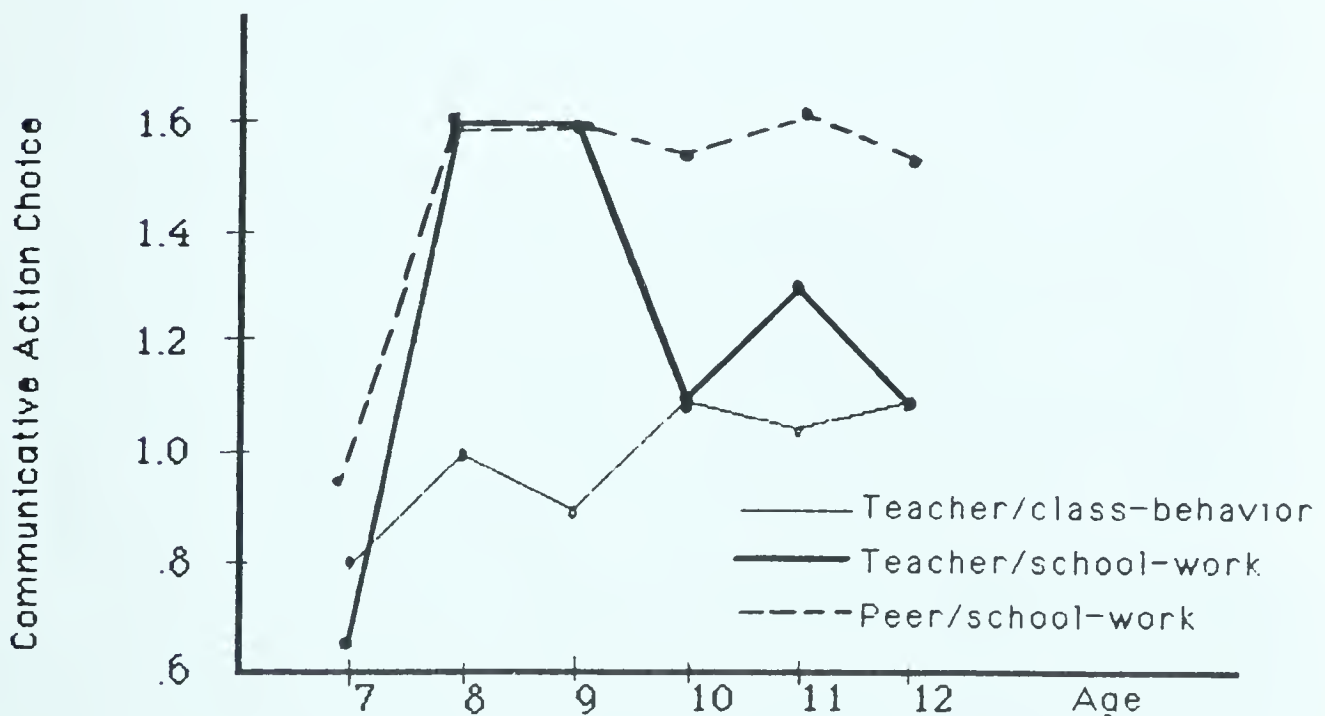
Plots of the Means for each Functional Step in each context:
Teacher/class-behavior, Teacher/school-work, Peer/school-work



In Figure 3, where the means for each age group are plotted for each dilemma context- there is an upward trend with age: the older the children the higher they score when they define the problem, justify the action and evaluate feelings but not when they propose a communicative action. Figure 4 illustrates more clearly the plot of the means for each of the three dilemmas in proposing a communicative action.

Figure 4

Plots of the Means for the Functional Step: Communicative Action Choice in each context: Teacher/class-behavior, Teacher/school-work, Peer/school-work



Results indicated no significant age differences in the communicative actions children recommend to use with teacher the about class-behavior (illustrated as narrow line in Figure 4) nor in communicating with peer about school-work (dotted line). But there was a significant age difference in communicative action they suggested to use with the teacher about school-work (bold line). Here we observed the highly interesting finding that the 8 and 9 year old children proposed significantly more reciprocal communicative actions than both the younger (7 year olds) and the older (10-12 year olds). These finding suggest an increasing gap, at least temporary, between children's communicative competence and their action choices. Therefore, older children might not be communicating with teacher about their school work at a level we expect them to be capable of from a communicative competence point of view.

What is a possible explanation for this finding? Do the older children, 10 to 12 year olds, "regress" in the communicative actions they propose?

The most likely explanation lies at the convergence of developmental and socialization explanations of forms of communicative actions. In other words, we can begin to understand the apparent "regression" in development in communicative action as the product of two powerful processes, one an "inner" or a developmental process and the other an "outer" or a socialization process. From a developmental perspective, children with age develop their capacity for communicative competence, for example from a unilateral or one-way style of communication to an understanding of reciprocal or two-way interaction. This transition commonly occurs during the 8 and 9 year old age period and it may be here where they most feel the urge to exercise this newfound competency. But the apparent gap between communicative competence and communicative action choice that develops among the 10 to 12 year olds, may be a function of the child's more astute perception of the way schools gradually socialize students in a system of expectations. In this system the teacher is an authority figure to whom children are supposed to listen, as opposed to a system in which mutuality in teacher's and student's communication are expected and opinions and feelings about school-work are shared (Kutnick, 1980). The older children in the sample may choose not to use reciprocal communicative action because they choose to meet the teacher expectations and play their ascribed role. They may also consider the consequences of the their actions (for example getting bad grades for speaking up) and view it as situationally inadequate to use reciprocal communicative action. The slightly younger children may feel more strongly the developmental pressure to express their feelings and opinions or inquire of the teacher to a greater extent

In summary, the findings of the study were as follows:

- there is a developmental trend in children's overall level of communicative competence,
- for the most part, sex differences were not found in level or orientation,
- there were context differences in children's level of communicative competence as they show more reciprocal forms in situation with a peer than with the teacher,
- the children are more likely to be assertive with a peer but submissive with the teacher,
- a developmental trend in how children propose to act in communication was not found. In fact when children communicate with the teacher about school-work, the 8 and 9 year olds proposed more two-way or reciprocal communicative actions than both the younger and the older children.

3. Educational Implications

The findings of the present study highlight several important educational concerns that are related to communicative competence. First, the theme of the study is child-centered. It encourages educators in everyday interaction with children to pay attention to and listen to children's voices, their thoughts, feelings and motives. Too often adults dominate children, do not even ask children for their opinions and do not give them opportunities to explain their points of view. This is a question of attitude towards children.

Second, the model of interpersonal communicative competence provides educators with an essential frame with which to listen to children's contributions, to observe their ways of reasoning, how they act, feel, and think. The model also helps educators understand differences in individual style, such as whether and under which circumstances children tend to be submissive and assertive in their communicative actions. And the earlier outlined results of the study help educators in forming a preliminary understanding of children's ability to communicate.

Third, the results hopefully will encourage educators to consider the importance of promoting children's communicative competence. It stimulates educators to think about ways to provide communicative situations for resolutions of interpersonal problems; situations where educators and children have the opportunity to share mutual respect and responsibility, to show trust and tolerance for different viewpoints, and to feel worthy of attention and affection.

The essential components of communicative competence, perspective-taking ability

and moral growth (Habermas, 1979;1984) have been shown to be promoted in discussions about socio-moral and interpersonal conflicts (Berkowitz & Gibbs, 1985; Blatt & Kohlberg, 1975; Brion-Meisels & Selman, 1984). These assumptions corroborate the arguments that discussions about conflicting points of view in communicative situations are important in the developmental process of being able to communicate effectively and to reach mutual understanding.

In setting up a model situation we can have the children discuss the issues under consideration either in pairs, in groups, or before the whole class. The subject matter has to involve conflicting perspectives between two or more people. The different perspectives of the persons are emphasized in order to stimulate children to put themselves in both persons' shoes. This is important for they must be encouraged to see that both persons have a point, and encouraged to consider positive solutions for both persons. The issues for discussion can either be taken from the children's daily experience in school or they can be developed by the educator, for example in line with the dilemmas used in the present study. The issues can also be drawn from the curriculum such as social studies, which deal with people, their thinking, feelings, and interactions. Furthermore, children's literature is important in providing examples of communicative situations for discussion. Here, we will emphasize children's literature and the role of the school librarian in assisting the teacher and the children in finding books, chapters, or themes which provide opportunities for discussion about conflicting points of view. A few examples from children's literature will be outlined below, which serve as a guideline for the kind of themes which are stressed in discussions about communicative conflict resolutions. Such literature deals with everyday interactions between persons that know each other quite well. Communication of conflicting perspectives between parents and their children, between siblings, between friends, between a student and the classroom teacher or the school librarian, are examples of issues for use in discussions for this purpose.

The well known Swedish author and H. C. Andersen prize winner, Maria Gripe, is one of the authors who has a sensitive insight into the child's world. She writes about children's conflicts and communicative problems in everyday life. In her books about Elvis (Gripe, 1978/1972; 1979/1973; 1980/1976), there are many examples of the different and conflicting perspectives that Elvis and his mother have towards situations and the various communicative problems they have because of this. For example, most children can easily identify with Elvis when his mother tells another adult things concerning her son which he wants to be kept secret. Let us consider one example. Once when Elvis, who is about 8 years old, comes home from school, his mother is talking

with her friend on the phone. They are laughing and giggling. He soon finds out his mother is telling her friend about a love letter Elvis wrote his teacher.

"Mom's been going through his stuff again! She found the envelope he hid so well. She opened it and read it. And as that wasn't enough. She also called some women and read it to them, so now everybody knows ... Now they're sitting there laughing". (Gripe, 1979,123).

In discussing this event and searching for children's opinions and solutions for Elvis' problem they are asked a few questions in line with the theoretical model of interpersonal communicative competence presented earlier; questions such as: What is the problem here? Why is that a problem? How does Elvis feel? Why does he feel that way? How would you deal with the mother? Why would that be a good way to handle the situation? Then the children explore Elvis' reaction which was to run away from home. The children are asked what they think of that solution and are encouraged to reason about it. The story itself also provides the reader with both the mother's and Elvis' perspectives. The mother feels she should know his secrets so that "he would not do any nonsense". Elvis disagrees but does not argue about it with his mother. Rather he reacts impulsively by running away, feeling his mother never understands him and he clearly does not trust her. According to the theoretical model of ICC, Elvis' action is classified at level 0 as he runs away and does not use verbal communicative actions in interacting with his mother about the problem. Also Elvis' mother doesn't either appear to try to discuss the problem with Elvis by listening to his point of view nor does she attempt to explain her perspective to him. Overall, the books about Elvis give many good examples of conflict resolutions without reciprocal understanding on either side. This gives rich opportunities to discuss various problem solutions.

Other books illustrate more effective solutions in conflict situations between children and parents, where dialogue and reciprocal understanding is emphasized. We would like to mention the popular Icelandic children's author, Guðrún Helgadóttir, and her books about the twins, Jón Oddur and Jón Bjarni (Helgadóttir, 1974; 1975; 1980). It is interesting for children to compare, on the one hand, how Elvis and his mother deal with their conflicts, and on the other hand, how the twins and their parents solve theirs. Similarly, the children can be provided with examples to discuss and compare different communications between teachers and their students. For example, the book *Bubbler* by the popular American writer Judy Blume (1974) and the books about Hugo and Josefina by Maria Gripe (1973/1961; 1974/1962; 1975/1966) provide a frame for such discussion. The teacher in the book *Bubbler* is authoritarian and claims unilateral respect. Her interactions with her students are characterized by commands and avoidance of reasoning.

The students do not show her trust in communication, backbite her, and behave badly in class. The teacher in the books about Hugo and Josefin is understanding of the children's different needs. She seeks their opinions and explanations, and their relationship is characterized by reasoning, mutual trust and respect. In discussing the differences in communications in these two situations, one possible approach is to look at each case separately at first. The children start by defining the problem in the communicative situation. Next they propose various actions to solve the conflict and evaluate which ones are the best. Finally, they consider the consequences of the action and the persons' feelings. The children's suggestions are written down. Having worked with each case within this frame it is easy for the children to compare these different forms of communication, what they think is similar between the situations, what they feel is different, what they like the best and why.

Examples of other issues, which children often face and have to solve in everyday interaction, are problems that arise in group work on school projects (e.g. Blume, 1972, 73), problems in pair friendship when the third child joins in (e.g. Gripe, 1974, 69), being forced by a popular child in class to perform something which he or she does not want to do (e.g. Blume, 1974), being blamed by teachers (e.g. Blume, 1974) and parents (e.g. Blume, 1972) for things which they are not responsible for.

In summary, we may conclude that the model of interpersonal communicative competence is an important link in the attempt to bridge the gap between psychological theories about children's communicative competence and educational implications. The same theoretical model is used both in studying children's communicative competence and in attempting to promote their communicative competence and effective conflict resolutions in interpersonal relationships. An understanding of children's thinking and feelings in communicative contexts is hoped to encourage educators in schools to provide material and settings which stimulate children to feel free to express their opinions, feel they are heard, feel the need to listen to others, and are motivated to argue, resolve communicative conflicts, and reach consensus. In using the educational approach described earlier, children's literature plays an important role both in providing themes for discussion and in encouraging children to search for such themes in books and explore them with various questions in mind. Hopefully, this will increase their understanding of their own thoughts, feelings, and motives and influence their communicative problem solutions in everyday life.

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COMPUTERS IN SCHOOL LIBRARIES: AN OVERVIEW

Laurel A. Clyde

1. INTRODUCTION

From the perspective of mid-1987, it is easy to forget the speed with which computers have come to have an accepted place in education at all levels. Twenty years ago, small, relatively cheap mini-computers were just coming onto the market; only ten years ago, micro-computers were first developed. Progress in small computer design and development over the last decade has been little short of staggering, while costs have not risen substantially, despite the increased sophistication of the small systems on the market. Ten years ago, automatic bank tellers, electronic funds transfer, the communications satellite, and, indeed, the micro-chip were unknown to most of us; now they are shaping our society, while we have learned to live with car telephones, cars that speak to us, computer-controlled security doors, programmable toasters, and bar-coded library cards. Today microcomputers can perform many tasks which would have confounded the designers of larger computers ten years ago. This means that computers and all forms of information technology have become more and more prevalent in all areas of our society, and in education. But that is not all. As a 1984 Australian College of Education Report on Future Learning notes, "advancing information technology influences education... by reshaping the society within which education operates and for which it is preparing its pupils and students". (Cumming and Wallace, 1984, 2) Educators and parents are recognizing that this new technology cannot be ignored if children in schools are to be given an understanding of the world in which they live and a realistic preparation for the future.

A recent Australian report by the National Advisory Committee on Computers in Schools (1986, 5) presents a case for the use of computers in schools:

Schools have responsibility for assisting all children to become effective participants in societies which use electronic information systems for a wide range of purposes. Acceptance of this responsibility will require that schools and teachers maximise opportunities for children to explore the potential of computers to enhance communication and enrich learning. There are two aspects of this responsibility which are manifested at the school level. The first is concerned

with communication and access to information. Information in our society is becoming increasingly accessible through computer-controlled technology. Thus there is a responsibility for schools to provide experiences that will enable children to acquire the knowledge and skills to operate comfortably with this technology. The second aspect is concerned with teachers using computer technology within the existing curriculum to provide children with activities involving computers while at the same time providing efficient and valid experiences in the subject areas... providing children with real opportunities to acquire knowledge and skills... will contribute to the provision of a broad and comprehensive general education which will equip students emerging from the education system for the lifelong process of shaping new information technologies to the requirements of their continually changing environment.

In South Australia, a 1986 government report, Making Things Work: Learning for Competence and Enterprise, emphasized the relationship between the effective use of information technology in schools, and the preparation of pupils for a world in which information skills and thinking skills will be increasingly important.

We need to de-emphasize the learning of facts and acquiring of information and, instead, focus on the development of thinking skills and the ability to translate thoughts and ideas into actions or artefacts. In the past, there was an emphasis on being able to recall facts; now, the emphasis is on students being able to use their skills and the available information storage and retrieval technologies as tools. (Making Things Work, 1986, 13)

Other recent educational reports, in Australia and overseas, have made similar recommendations. It is significant that many of these present an educational rationale for the use of computers and information technology in schools; computers are valued for their potential to assist schools in achieving their educational objectives. What reasons are suggested, then, for using computers in schools?

- o Computers should be introduced into schools, for administrative tasks and in the classroom, to reflect what is happening in the "outside world".
- o Computers should be used to help to prepare students for a world of work where the ability to understand or use computers is becoming increasingly important.
- o Computers and all forms of information technology are important in the teaching of information and life skills, and particularly in teaching the effective use of a wide range of information storage and retrieval systems and tools.
- o Computers, with their associated software, can be used to improve the quality of children's learning experiences in a wide range of subject areas, through class or individual use of educational software packages, or by providing access to information.
- o Computers can be used to provide teachers with labour-saving tools which free them from clerical-level tasks, or which enable them to create more effective learning resources.

If computers are becoming increasingly important in our society and in schools, then clearly they will need to be accepted as an essential part of the school library if the library is to be a central focus of the school. A recent discussion paper on Libraries in New South Wales Government Schools says that "advances in technology must be assimilated into the library to maintain its relevance to the wide social context of its users". (1985, 1) Teacher librarians or school librarians, then, will need to develop school library policies which reflect the school policy in relation to computers. They also need to be able to play a prominent part in developing the school's computer policy, so that the library's computer activities are seen within the context of the school's curriculum and contribute to the education of the students. As the 1987 Library Association of Australia report on Online Information Services for Schools: Implications for the School Library says,

The school library does not exist in an educational vacuum but is part of the wider school community. It provides a dynamic teaching and learning environment and it

should embody curriculum changes which reflect information technology in action. Developments in technology and the increasing availability of information are extending the function of the school library. How rapidly the changes occur and how radical the changes are as yet to be determined. However, within the foreseeable future, the dual pressures of information and technology will influence the scope of the school library in accessing and manipulating that information... The dual responsibility of teacher librarians in providing information and teaching the skills of information handling result in a close association between the role of the teacher librarian and information technology. (1987, 9)

Computers, and particularly microcomputers, can be used, and are being used, in school libraries in three main ways. First, computers can be used for library administration and management tasks, including circulation, cataloguing or indexing, acquisitions, serials control, collection maintenance, budgeting, accounting, record-keeping, and statistics collection. Secondly, computers, when used in association with telecommunications technology, can be used for online information retrieval - to access information held in remote sources, and make it available within the school. Such sources may include databases which provide professional information for teachers, or curriculum-related information for use in the classroom. Thirdly, computers are making an impact on the school library as an instructional medium. Just as the library collections should contain print and audio-visual materials, to meet the educational, recreational, and vocational needs of students and to support the teaching/learning programme of the school, so it should also contain computer software and hardware related to the school's curriculum or to the students' recreational or other needs, selected using criteria outlined in the library's collection development policy statement, and organized for easy access and use. It should be noted that these three categories are not necessarily mutually exclusive. The library catalogue can be a very effective device for teaching information retrieval skills, for instance, since it is generally the largest single database created by a school, as can online information services and printed books in the library's collection.

In relation to the first area, the use of computers in library administration, it is important that this should not be seen as unrelated to the education of students. The Beazley Report on Education in Western Australia defined "curriculum" in a very broad way as "the total experience of students during schooling", (2.2) a definition which reflects the work of educational theorists like John Dewey. It needs to be remembered that, while computers are helping the teacher librarian to manage the school library, they are, at the same, time whether we like it or not, providing students with an example of the use of computer technology in an application which has immediate relevance for them. It is the teacher librarian's responsibility to ensure that the application is appropriate and

effective, so that students are exposed to a positive experience of computers in the school library. By the same token, when a teacher librarian decides not to use computers in school library management, it should be recognised that the decision will have implications both for library management and, though not in a overt way, for education about computers in the school and for developing student attitudes to computers.

Several of the reports already cited, including the Beazley Report, the OLISS Report on Online Information Services for Schools, and the South Australian report Making Things Work, have emphasized the importance of information skills, including skills associated with information location, storage, retrieval, and use. Ann Irving has said that

there is a need to recognize that the world is a potential information source, and that the teaching of information skills to enable pupils to gain experience in seeking and interpreting information is essential learning for living in an increasingly complex world. (1981, 37)

Teacher librarians have an important role here. Information storage and retrieval are basic to the function of libraries, whether they are carried out manually or assisted by automated processes. Computer-based information management and information retrieval tools in the school library can help to teach students basic skills in these areas, and provide constant reinforcement of those skills. Access to online information services, computer-based listings of all or part of the school library collection (for instance, periodicals, or video-tapes, or special collections like careers materials or local history), an online public access catalogue, computer-based union lists, are examples of applications which would help here. The British Library's SIR (Schools Information Retrieval) Project, conducted in six English schools in 1982/83, an attempt to involve school libraries and classroom teachers in teaching the skills of computer-based information management and information retrieval to secondary school students, at various grade levels and across many areas of the school curriculum, indicates one possible direction for the future. (Rowbottom, Payne, and Cronin, 1983) Another was demonstrated through the MISLIP Project based at Robert Gordon's Institute of Technology in Aberdeen, Scotland, from 1985 and continuing today, which involves classroom teachers, school librarians, and students in the creation of databases to facilitate project work in different curriculum areas. (Williams, Herring, and Bain, 1986) In Australia, some schools have seen this as a major reason for introducing an online public access catalogue or an integrated computer-based library administration system. (Naude, 1985) Teacher librarians need to review their information management and information retrieval techniques to ensure that they provide students with appropriate educational experiences in the light of their need for experience with technology and

techniques that reflect the reality of the world around them.

2. COMPUTERS FOR SCHOOL LIBRARY ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTIONS

2.1 Introduction

Computers can be used for a wide range of administrative, management, and record-keeping tasks in the school and the school library - though the size and capability of the computer will naturally limit the size of the tasks it can perform. Even a small microcomputer system can be used for a variety of applications - and if the applications which are computerized are those involving routine, repetitive, and time-consuming tasks, then there may be considerable benefits to the library and the school, both in more accurate record-keeping, and through more effective use of staff time. With micro-computers increasing in size, capacity, and flexibility, while relative costs are remaining steady or declining, it will become practical to automate more and more school and school library functions. Just as the larger tasks which would have been beyond the micro-computers on the market two or three years ago can be performed on many of today's micro-computers, so it is probable that, in a few years time, teacher librarians and school administrators will be able to consider using micro-computers for applications which seem impossible today. In any case, the super-micros of today which allow multi-tasking and provide for anything between twenty and forty-six terminals to be operational at any one time, have already extended considerably the range of automation options available to schools. At the same time, though, some schools are making very effective use of good software on older and more limited micro-computers like the Apple IIe in automating both school administration functions and school library systems.

2.2 Integrated Information Systems

Most libraries carry out a range of technical services and user services activities in the process of selecting, acquiring, accessioning, cataloguing, preparing, circulating, and, finally, withdrawing items from the collection, and in storing and providing access to those items. Integrated information systems generally provide modules for the major technical services and user services functions, plus a public access catalogue to assist users.

When computerization was first introduced into libraries, in the 1960s, different functions were usually computerized individually, often beginning (especially in large academic libraries) with the circulation system - the area in which manual systems were most conspicuously inadequate. Then it was realized that bibliographic and other data which had been entered into the circulation system were being entered again when a cataloguing system was developed; again when an acquisitions system was developed; and again for record-keeping purposes. The move to institution-wide database

management systems in business, tertiary institutions, and other places, has been reflected in libraries.

Now, some libraries are turning to integrated systems which include ordering / acquisitions, cataloguing, circulation, communications, report production, budgeting, and planning. Because data about materials and users are entered into the system once only, it is easier to maintain accurate records. Integrated systems can lead to both cost savings and increased efficiency within a library. School libraries, having turned to automation later than larger public and academic libraries, can profit from their experience. Integrated library systems are expensive, but the benefits could be great. It is often possible to introduce an integrated system one step at a time, as the budget allows, as long as the initial system was chosen with this in mind.

In 1986, when I compiled the first edition of a directory of Computer Software for School Libraries, (Clyde, 1986b) there were more than thirty integrated library systems available on the Australian market from which school libraries could choose. Around one third of these had been developed in Australia, the others in the United States, the United Kingdom, and Canada. Below is a sample listing:

SOME INTEGRATED LIBRARY SYSTEMS

URICA
LIBS 100
Book (Stowe)
Dynix
MICMARC
Lothlorien
Ocelot
Hermes
Love Data Systems
Card Datalog
Innovation 45-Plus
Book Trak

Some of these integrated systems, based on micro-computer technology, have been specifically designed for schools or small public libraries. One of these is the Integrated Micro-computer Library System, produced by Lothlorien Software of Sydney, New South Wales. Developed for the Apple II computer, this system runs on hardware that is affordable and accessible for most schools. The full system requires an eleven or twenty megabyte hard disc, and includes a cataloguing system, a public access catalogue, a circulation system, an overdue notices system, a reservations system, stock-taking, acquisitions / ordering, and external communications. All circulation functions can be controlled by bar-code reader, so that there is no need for the operator at the desk to remember commands or read menus of options. A particular strength of Lothlorien is the system programming which uses the features of the Apple II to full advantage to provide relatively fast, multi-user system which can store bibliographic data in a comparatively small space. Another is the high quality of the backup service provided to users all around Australia - all software maintenance is done by telephone from the Lothlorien offices in the Sydney suburb of Randwick, rather than in person, and is done very quickly. With an eleven megabyte hard disc, the Lothlorien system will cater for a collection of 30,000 to 35,000 items and more than 1000 borrowers. The use of a networking facility allows several terminals to be linked to the hard disc for use by the library staff or by patrons. Lothlorien has now been installed in more than forty Australian school libraries, including Prince Alfred College, Adelaide, South Australia; Pymble Public School, Sydney, New South Wales; Hastings, Victoria; The Scots College, Sydney; Peninsula Church of England School, Mt. Eliza, Victoria. The full system software is available for around A\$ 6000; hardware costs are additional.

Some other integrated library systems available in Australia and overseas for school libraries include Card Datalog, an American system which can be used on micro-computers with CP / M, MP / M, or MS-DOS operating systems; MICMARC, developed in Australia for a wide range of micro-computers and super-micros, including the Unison, Altos, Sperry, and Olivetti; Innovation 45-plus, an American system for the IBM PC; and Love Data Systems, an Australian system for the Corona.

2.3 Cataloguing

Despite the ready availability of integrated library systems which run on micro-computers, many schools are automating only selected library functions. Sometimes this is related to financial and budget limitations; sometimes it is a decision based on perceived school needs or considerations of relative efficiency and cost-effectiveness of manual and automated systems. One particular area of school library management in which computers have had some impact is cataloguing.

Cataloguing is a highly-skilled, labour-intensive procedure which provides the main means of access to a library's resources. Without a catalogue, the books and other materials held by a library would be virtually useless. Yet "traditional", manually-created card catalogues have proved cumbersome, inefficient, and difficult to use (especially for young children). Some libraries see the trend towards automated cataloguing as providing an opportunity to re-assess the aims and objectives of library cataloguing and to develop catalogues which are more closely tuned to the users' needs. (Epstein, 1983).

Online catalogues allow library users to search for the materials they need through a computer terminal. Most allow searches by author, title, subject, and / or keyword; some provide for more complex Boolean and other searches as well. The integrated library systems discussed earlier, such as URICA, Lothlorien, and Card Datalog, all incorporate an online public access catalogue.

Other computer-based catalogue options include COM micro-fiche catalogues or computer-produced printed catalogues. Some libraries have been entering their cataloguing data into a computer, where it is stored on tape. Every three months (or six months, depending on the library) the tapes are sent to a bureau where update micro-fiche or printed catalogues are produced from them. The advantages are that it is a quicker process than producing and filing catalogue cards; the micro-fiche catalogue takes up less space; and it is possible to have multiple copies of the catalogue fiche so that copies can be placed in staff rooms or wherever there is a micro-fiche reader. The disadvantages are that access is required to expensive computer hardware; micro-fiche readers must be provided for users if the catalogue is on fiche; ongoing charges must be paid to the bureau for updates; and the fact that between updates the catalogue gradually becomes less and less accurate.

In Australia, two tertiary education institutions have provided a service to schools by which main-frame computers of the institutions are used to produce micro-fiche and printed catalogue or KWOC indexes to Library collections. Kuring-gai College of Advanced Education in Sydney has provided a KWOC index service for school libraries in New South Wales since 1979 / 1980. (Jennings and Schmidmaier, 1983, 2). Using data coding sheets, teacher librarians record cataloguing information for items in their collection. This information is keyed into the computer by Centre staff, and regular KWOC index updates are produced for the libraries, either as printed output which could be bound into bookform, or as micro-fiche. Another project of this type was developed at the Mitchell College of Advanced Education, Bathurst, New South Wales, where indexes for local school libraries are created on the Facom main-frame computer in the College's Computer Centre. Teacher- librarians forward cataloguing data to the Centre on coding sheets or on floppy disc, for entry into their files, and receive regularly-updated printed or micro-fiche indexes to their collections, usually in the form of listings for fiction,

non-fiction, and video-tapes. In May 1987, twenty-eight schools were using this service, including ten from outside the region.

It is also possible for individual schools to use database management packages such as d-Base II or PFS to create catalogue or index files for all or part of their library collection, and to print out updates regularly for use throughout the school. An example would be a listing of video-tapes in the school library at Billabong High School in New South Wales, maintained on an Apple II micro-computer, with regular updates being printed and circulated to staff.

Computer-based catalogue card production is another means by which micro-computers have been used to assist in the preparation of school library catalogues. It is obvious that creating sets of catalogue cards manually for each new item the library acquires is a problem. The same data has to be typed on the shelf list card, the author card, the title card, any subject cards, and on the loan card, then any needed added headings typed on each card. Then each card has to be proof-read separately. This opens the way for errors in cataloguing. It also means that teacher librarians are often reluctant to use all the desirable subject headings for each item, since even more cards would have to be typed and checked. To counter this problem catalogue card production programs have been developed for a wide range of micro-computers - I identified some sixty of them when I compiled my directory of Computer Software for School Libraries in 1986, and I have since become aware of more. Some sell for as little as A\$10.00. An example is the Monash Primary School Library Card program, developed for Monash Primary School in Canberra; others include Card and Label Manager from Speak Softly, Incorporated, and Library Catalogue from Comaldor.

Some school libraries are making use of online cataloguing data in creating library catalogues, whether those catalogues are manual ones or computer based. In Australia, a national project, the ASCIS (Australian Schools Catalogue Information Service) project, has had, and is having, an important influence on ideas about school library cataloguing, even though it has been fully operational for only three years. Because school libraries provide material to support the school curriculum, a large proportion of the stock of any Australian school library will be the same as that of any other school library catering to the same age group. In the past, a great deal of professional time has been wasted because thousands of teacher librarians have, of necessity, been cataloguing many of the same items. The centralized cataloguing data service offered by ASCIS is designed to help to overcome this problem, (McDonald, 1983, 42-44) and to help teacher librarians to provide effective catalogues at the school level. Through this computer-based project, cataloguing data is now being provided to the nation's 10,085 schools. Cataloguing data are provided to the ASCIS office in Melbourne online by accredited cataloguing agencies - the central school library services

in each of the Australian states and territories. Data provided must meet the published ASCIS standards. Schools receive monthly updates of the ASCIS database on micro-fiche, with an annual cumulation, or, alternatively, they can search the database online, using their own micro-computer with a modem and communications software. Once they have located the records they need, they can either order sets of catalogue cards ready for filing, or order the catalogue data for the items on floppy disc, ready for loading into their own school-based online catalogue. It is hoped that, in the near future, schools will also be able to download records direct from the ASCIS database into their own school library online catalogues. There is talk, too, of making the ASCIS database available eventually on CD-ROM and through other services such as Telecom Australia's Viatel service.

As the various services to be offered through ASCIS have become operational, more and more teacher librarians have been looking at the possibilities for automation of school library management functions to take full advantage of ASCIS. It opens the possibility of future union catalogues for all school library collections in a region, and, hence, greater use of inter-library loans. In the meantime, with only a little more than half of Australia's schools currently using ASCIS data, we have a way to go.

School libraries in other countries have also been able to take advantage of centralized, computer-based cataloguing services. Schools and school districts in Canada, for instance, are participants in the UTLAS service, (Bracey, 1987) while in the United States, OCLC (Online Computer Library Center) has school members.

While many schools have implemented "standalone" school-based school library automated systems (sometimes using data supplied by remote online databases like ASCIS or OCLC), it is also possible for a group of schools together, or a school system, to implement a networked library system. This enables them to take advantage of the power of a large computer system, and frequently to improve access to materials through co-operative acquisitions, union catalogues, and inter-library loans. A disadvantage, in some networks, is that the autonomy of the school in future decision making is reduced. Two Australian examples of library networks will give an indication of the possibilities.

In Tasmania, the smallest of Australia's six states, the Tasmanian Education Department has established a state-wide computer network known as TASNET, based on main-frame computers in the Elizabeth Computer Centre in Hobart. TASNET can be accessed online from the primary and secondary schools, by using micro-computers. It offers several online services specifically for school libraries. One is TASCIS, the Tasmanian Schools Catalogue Information Service, established in 1977. Originally, TASCIS offered an online catalogue card ordering service from a central database; now it offers the ASCIS cataloguing database and ordering facilities for ASCIS card sets or catalogue data on floppy disc. In addition, the locally-created TBIS (Tasmanian

Bibliographic Information System) cataloguing database for school, matriculation, and technical college libraries, is available through TASNET, and it will be merged with TASCIS in the future. Circulation is catered for through CIRSYS, an online library circulation system, operational since 1979. It has now been implemented, or is in the process of being implemented, in the state's government secondary schools. Originally developed for the public library system, CIRSYS has been modified by the Education Department to meet the needs of schools. TASNET also makes available to schools online, information databases such as ABC Reporter and the AAP (Australian Associated Press) News Service. (Herr and Truett, 1985)

In the Northern Territory - considerably larger than Tasmania, but much more sparsely populated - another state-wide library network has been established. Called LINNET, this is based on an IBM main-frame computer in Darwin, using the large DOBIS / LIBIS library software system. Libraries in the network include the Northern Territory Library Service, the Darwin Institute of Technology, government department libraries, public libraries, and now some state secondary school libraries.

2.4 Circulation

Just as there is an enormous range of automated catalogue options open to school libraries, so there are many different computer-based circulation systems from which to choose. It has already been indicated that these options could include implementing an automated circulation system as part of an integrated school library system (Lothlorien or MacSchool, for instance); or as part of a computer-based library network, as has happened in Tasmania (CIRYS) or in the Northern Territory (DOBIS / LIBRIS). A circulation system may also be implemented in a school library as a separate system, and a wide range of software is available for this, from packages costing many thousands of dollars and providing for reservations, statistics, fines, collection management, and reports, to small systems costing little more than a couple of hundred dollars and offering a very basic circulation or overdue system.

Prolib is an Australian school library circulation system which has been purchased by more than one hundred school libraries. Versions are available for the Apple IIe or the IBM PC with hard disc drive; both use a bar-code reader for data input at the circulation desk. Developed originally for North Sydney Demonstration School, Prolib was designed to be simple enough to be operated by primary school children. (Stephen, 1985), Book Trak is another Apple II based circulation system for school libraries. Designed in Canada by expatriate Australian, Bob Stevens, in 1982, and now sold from the United States, it was originally known as the Richmond System. It is available in both hard disc and floppy disc versions, and people starting out with a cheaper floppy disc version can convert later to a hard disc. The system has been

purchased by around two thousand schools in the United States, (Library Management System, 1985) and there is a large group of more than fifty users in Australia. One of these is Gray Primary School in Darwin, where the floppy disc version has been installed and is operated by children. (Low-cost..., 1984; Bucknall, 1985).

Rather than using a micro-computer to handle all the circulation functions in the library, some schools use it just for overdues. Overdues are a problem area in many school libraries, requiring a great deal of repetitious clerical work in maintaining lists and sending out notices. There were around forty micro-computer-based overdues packages on the market in 1986, (Clyde, 1986b) and many schools have had their own programs written to automate this task. The second issue of the South Australian SMMART Journal for 1984 listed and described the overdues packages used in twelve high schools in that state. (Bickley, 1984) Commercially-available overdues packages include The Library Monitor, for the Apple, from Colorado Computer West; The Overdue Writer, for the Apple II and TRS-80, from Highsmith in the United States; and Date Due, for the Commodore, from Midwest Software. Prices range up to a couple of hundred dollars.

2.5 Other Administrative Functions

Other school library management tasks, apart from cataloguing and circulation, which lend themselves to computerization include:

- o ordering and acquisition functions;
- o serials control;
- o preparation of bibliographies;
- o statistics gathering to help in evaluating library services and planning for future developments;
- o accounting;
- o timetabling for library use by class groups;
- o maintaining equipment inventories;
- o keeping records of student progress in any library-based instructional programs (for instance in information skills instruction);
- o inter-library loans management;
- o maintaining mailing lists and sending out circulars;
- o providing current awareness service to staff;
- o providing library orientation information for new users, for instance through a simulated video-tex system;
- o producing lettering for displays and for labelling shelves or kits;
- o establishing a community resource file;
- o word processing for news-letters, book-lists, and mailings;
- o organizing regular preventive maintenance for audio-visual equipment;

- o indexing poems in anthologies (or short stories in short story collections, or short pieces of music on long-playing records);
- o developing catalogues of special sections of the collection, especially those in which there are constant changes in the library's holdings - for instance video-tapes, careers material, audio-tapes, popular periodicals;
- o developing a union list of all periodicals or films or videotapes held by libraries in a particular area;
- o maintaining links between libraries in a local area network.

This list is based on my own observation of computer applications in Australian and overseas school libraries, and on reports in professional journals. It is not intended to be exhaustive, nor do I wish to imply that computerization of all these functions would be useful or desirable in every school library. The measure of usefulness in any situation should be whether or not computerization of a particular function will assist in the achievement of the aims and objectives established for the library service, in an efficient and effective way.

2.6 The Library as Part of the Total School Administration System

One approach to school library automation is to see the school library system as part of the total school information system - a system which incorporates information about staff, students, accounts, timetable, reports, curriculum, school assets, textbooks, equipment - and library resources. The advantages of such a system are that all school information is stored centrally, information is made available easily to all who are authorized to use each particular file, and data are stored only once on the system, which makes for easy maintenance and up-dating of files. For instance, the library circulation system would make use of the student information stored in the student file; the library budgeting system would make use of overall budget plans and information stored in the school budget file; and scheduling groups for library use or for special programmes would be done with the aid of the school scheduling or time-tabling system.

Large school administration systems have been made possible by the emergence in the last couple of years of "super-micro-computers", which fall between the smaller personal computers and the larger and much more expensive mini-computers. The super-micros such as the Unison and the Olivetti D20 are fast in operation, have larger internal memories and disc storage capacities than are usually found in microcomputers, and allow several users to work on different tasks at different terminals at the same time. They are both "multi-user" and "multi-tasking" machines. Some can support more than forty terminals. This allows library users to access the catalogue while, at the same time, the office staff are using the computer for word processing and the bursar is using it to

send out accounts. However, some schools, particularly smaller schools, have implemented whole school administration systems using smaller computers, though access to the system may be restricted for many of the users.

3. COMPUTERS FOR INFORMATION RETRIEVAL

The 1987 Australian report, Online Information Services for Schools, notes that The dual responsibilities of the teacher librarian in providing information and teaching the skills of information handling result in a close association between the role of the teacher librarian and information technology. It can be argued that no other department in the school can demonstrate as many examples of information technology in action as the school library. (1987, 9).

And further,

Students need an understanding of how computer-based information is created, stored, and accessed, if maximum use is to be made of the computer as an information source...The inquiry process and the teaching of information skills provides an established structure to introduce information technology to students. Students are taught to access databases, use computerized catalogues, gain information on video-tex, and search software packages held by the school library.... The teacher librarian must ensure that specific information skills are developed to use the information technology sources. These skills include the use of truncated searches, key word searches, Boolean searches, use of menus and command languages.

Using computers for information retrieval in the school library, for curriculum-related purposes, or for recreational uses, falls into two main categories: access to information held in computer-based formats in the school library itself; and access to external databases and online services. Both have applicability in developing information skills as well as in providing access to information and resources. This aspect of school library computing will be discussed more fully by Joyce Kirk in a later paper.

4. COMPUTERS AS EDUCATIONAL MEDIA

4.1 Introduction

There is a sense in which micro-computers, with their software, can be seen as an audio-visual medium or educational resource, akin to videorecorders and videotapes or projectors and 16mm films, in that they offer a range of learning experiences for pupils. It has been said that computer materials are simply "information carriers in a different

physical form"; they can be teaching aids, or self-instructional materials, just as other, more widely-accepted media formats are. (Geddes, 1983) In most Australian schools today, and in schools in other countries, audio-visual resources are managed by the teacher librarian as part of the library's collection. It follows, then, that if a school's computer resources are educational tools, computer programs of any sort, whether on disc, tape, or hard copy, have as much place in the school library as any other educational medium. Teacher librarians have a key role in promoting the educational use of computers, and in co-ordinating the acquisition, processing, and storage of micro-computer hardware and software so that they are made available to all who need to use them. The librarian's role should not be that of a custodian of computer resources, but rather that of a facilitator who, through catalogues and other aids, promotes awareness of resources, and makes them available for use. This does not necessarily mean that all the resources need necessarily be housed centrally in the school library - only that they be co-ordinated centrally. (Clyde and Naude, 1987).

There are other advantages associated with having the school's educational computer resources managed through the school library. Since subject departments, and individual teachers, as well as the school library, are likely to purchase software, there will be financial and educational benefits if the school library is established as a clearing-house for all software, as, indeed, it should be for all educational media. This means that a record of all software items held in the school will be maintained and made available to staff and pupils. It could also lead to a rationalizing of software purchases on a school-wide basis, with cost savings as a result. Furthermore, there is a need for the provision of a range of services associated with the computers, much the same as those services related to other educational tools managed through the library. These services may include the maintenance of a schedule for group and individual use of equipment, or the organisation of a preventive maintenance programme for equipment. They may also include a range of educational services, such as user education programmes to help both teachers and pupils to use computers effectively, or computer familiarization programmes for parents.

4.2 Curriculum-Related Software

Instructional packages are available for a wide variety of topics throughout the school curriculum, and for all age and ability levels. The "discovery learning" approach is used in packages like Rocky's Boots, which includes games designed to help primary school children understand logical concepts and the basics of computer circuitry. Micro Mother Goose, written for young children between the ages of three and nine years, uses nursery rhymes and games to introduce basic microcomputer skills. Database packages like Australian Women, or The First Fleet Database, or Birds of Antarctica, provide a

resource for classroom research work. For older children, an important type of discovery learning package is the simulation. These are available for many subjects areas: Oregon Trail for American history; Odell Lake for ecology; Raftaway River for planning strategies; Gold Dust Island for map reading and interpretation. An example of a package designed for high school students is Volcanoes, an earth science simulation produced by Earthware Computer Services, through which the students not only learn about volcanoes, but also develop skills in analyzing data. Word processing programs, like The Bank Street Writer, designed for children and "beginning writers", encourage creativity and the development of skills in written expression. Computer languages, most notably LOGO, have been developed as "learning environments" for young children, in which concepts of shape, order, sequence, structure, and relationships can be explored.

4.3 Recreational Resources

It is worth remembering that school libraries are not just sources of material related to the curriculum; recreational and general interest materials also have a place in the collection, and literature promotion programmes have long been recognized as an important part of the work of a teacher librarian. It follows, then, that computer-based recreational materials should also have place in the school library collection. These materials could include:

- o "books on a disc", or "interactive fiction", like Flowers of Crystal, which allow the user to become a participant in the story;
- o "the disc of the book" - interactive fiction programs which have grown out of books (in the same way that we have "the film of the book") and which include titles like Hitch hiker's Guide to the Galaxy and Frederick Forsyth's The Fourth Protocol;
- o computer games, including games like Loderunner and Chess;
- o applications packages which allow students to perform tasks like creating databases;
- o programming languages like BASIC to enable students to create their own programs.

4.4 Information Skills Instruction

It is now gradually becoming accepted that the teaching of information skills should not be confined to "library skills" instruction in the occasional "library lesson" given by the teacher librarian in one particular year. Rather, it should be a broadly-based, continuous, sequential process across the curriculum and throughout the school, involving the teacher librarian and classroom teachers in co-operative planning and

teaching as "partners in action". Recent reports, quoted at the beginning of this paper, have emphasized the importance of information handling and information retrieval skills for children of all ages, so that they will be able to cope with planning and decision-making in an increasingly complex and technology-based world. The teacher librarian's role in this area encompasses, not just the co-operative teaching of skills, but also the provision of effective information retrieval tools, including catalogues and indexes, in the school library, through which information retrieval skills can be learned and reinforced.

Some micro-computer-based packages are now available which have been prepared with the aim of assisting students to develop and to practice information skills, including online information skills. The software developed for the British Library's Schools Information Retrieval (SIR) project, for instance, (Rowbottom, 1982; Rowbottom, Payne, and Cronin, 1983) is designed to help students to develop skills in information management and online searching. Packages like the Schmidt File, created by Nigel Akers for the Apple II, use a game format, but require students to use print and computer-based reference sources to solve a problem. The Information Connection, produced by Grolier, uses games and a tutorial to teach students about computer communications and the use of online information services such as CompuServe. The prepared commercial databases available, on a wide range of topics and for several different brands of microcomputer, can also be used to teach skills of information access and information retrieval. Titles available include One World Database, Macroeconomic Database, Australian Women, Birds of Antarctica, Castle Pack, MECC Dataquest: The Presidents, and Olympic Database.

Much of the software available, however, has been developed to teach "traditional" library skills, rather than more general information skills; usually these focus on using a card catalogue, locating books on the shelves, using reference books, understanding the Dewey Decimal System. My 1986 directory of Computer Software for School Libraries (Clyde, 1986b) lists more than one hundred library skills packages, and other packages have appeared since it was published. Since there is obviously no shortage of library skills software, teacher librarians should review what is available carefully so that they select what best suits their school library.

5. CONCLUSION

The school library's main function is to acquire, organise, and make available, resources to support the school curriculum, resource-based and individualized instruction, and the recreational needs of users. Computers can be used for a wide range of school library management applications, to ensure that resources are catalogued, organized, circulated, and maintained for easy use by teachers and students. Computers

have a role to play in the provision of curriculum-related information services in the school library through links to online databases and services. Computers, and their software, may also form part of the library's stock of educational resources, along with books, films, pictures, toys, video-tapes, records, games, maps, and equipment. In addition, new school library computer applications are emerging almost constantly; current developments suggest that teacher librarians will increasingly be considering the use of computers to meet the needs of teachers and students in their schools.

Even now, developments are occurring that are likely to have an important influence on school libraries in the future. These include the use of videodiscs to store enormous amounts of multi-media material - text, still and moving pictures, voice, music, computer programs - with access to material on any part of the disc within a couple of seconds. The BBC's Domesday Project video-discs, which present a portrait of modern Britain through maps, diagrams, documents, pictures, film clips, still pictures, voice, and music, illustrate the potential of this technology. Another new mass storage medium, CD-ROM, will enable school libraries to hold major reference works, encyclopaedias, and copies of databases like ERIC on disc. Already, one Australian school library, at Ipswich Grammar School in Queensland, is using The Academic American Encyclopaedia on CD-ROM. Developments in fifth generation languages, in artificial intelligence, and in expert systems, have the potential to improve access to library catalogues, and, indeed, to change on whole concept of catalogue searches. Hand-held decoders, which translate the printed word of text files on a computer into voice output may will change our ideas about the importance of reading skills for everyone - and perhaps lead us to concentrate more of the skills of extracting meaning from text that comes to us in printed or sound form. The only certainty is that teacher librarians will not be able to stand still and ignore these developments if they are to continue to fulfil their role in schools.

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THE SCHOOL LIBRARY AND THE
CURRICULUM
THE IMPLEMENTATION OF INFORMATION
SKILLS WITHIN THE SCHOOL: STRATEGIES
AND POLICIES

Michael J. Cooke.

"We live in an age of information. The quality of our lives, collectively and individually depends upon a capacity to make informed judgements"¹

Education is no different to many other fields of endeavour, it is constantly developing and changing. One of the important developments in education is embodied in this opening statement - the emphasis on the importance of information in all our lives.

For a number of reasons it has become increasingly apparent that the skills of handling information in its various forms are essential for efficient functioning in the modern world. These are the skills that students leaving school will need, for the information they will come across and use daily is becoming more and more important in their lives. (There is already evidence in the UK to show that social welfare benefits are often unclaimed, not because the potential recipients do not need them, but because they either do not know they exist or cannot find out how to claim them.)

In this situation, with an ever expanding volume of information, effective control of one's life demands access to, and an ability to cope with, relevant information.

Perhaps you may know this modern parable of the chicken and pig who were walking down a road together - a high street in a modern town.

The chicken turned to his companion and asked: "Why is it that you always appear to get top billing?"

The pig was puzzled by this and asked the chicken to explain.

The chicken pointed to a sign in the window of a restaurant they had just passed, it read: "Ham and Eggs; Bacon and Eggs; Sausage and Eggs".

The pig was clearly thoughtful for a moment but then he beamed brightly and said: "For you my friend it is only a contribution, but for me the commitment is total".

Does this not have something to say to the school library? Have we been like the

chicken prepared to make only a contribution to the educational process.

Clearly this is no longer enough. The school library if it is to be effective must be totally committed and the librarian must be seen as a full member of the teaching team.

In the modern society no individual or agency lives in a vacuum. We all operate in the context of powerful social, political and economic forces. The school library is no different. It cannot ignore the trends in society and the implications of those trends for the educational climate in which it operates.

Amongst other roles, school librarians must see themselves as information managers, so that as well as being aware of the trends, they need to adapt to them and take advantage of them.

Tom Stonier in his book "The Wealth of Information" made it clear how important information is to society outside the school. "An educated workforce learns how to exploit new technology, an ignorant one becomes its victim".²

There is no doubt that the world of tomorrow holds a great deal of excitement for our students. There seems to be no limit to what is possible technically and scientifically, but tomorrow's citizens will only cope with and enjoy these developments if they are equipped with the right kind of skills to become masters of the technology, rather than be mastered by it.

There is an old Chinese proverb which may be familiar to you, which is appropriate here. "If you give a hungry man a fish, he will eat it and soon be hungry again, but if you teach him how to fish for himself, he need never be hungry again."

Traditionally as librarians we have tried our best to provide our users with the actual piece of information they requested - rather like giving the hungry man the fish - instead often of teaching the skills which would enable that same reader to find the information for himself, skills which would last and enable the reader to find other information in the future.

A British Library Report by Ann Irving of the Loughborough Library School, said that even in schools where project work was important "it was unusual to encounter any formal instruction for pupils in how to do project work."³

This report found that even at the sixth form level, students were expected to develop the skills for independent study without any special teaching.

As a consequence of this the universities and colleges find themselves having to put on special courses for new students, in study skills. Introducing such skills at the tertiary level is really too late for these students to make the most effective use of them.

This British Library report was written in 1979 and although I think the situation has improved since then, I see no evidence of any dramatic change, yet there has been dramatic change in the world outside the school.

One of the important and far reaching changes in Britain and many other Western nations, is the change in the nature of adult life itself. It is no longer a world with a clear division between work and leisure.

A notion which has served education for over 100 years.

Keith Evans, Director of Education for a Welsh Education Authority, put it this way: "Of all the contemporary factors which the education service has to take into account, there can be no doubt that structural unemployment is by far the most significant. This is because the decline in the number of opportunities for paid employment threatens to undermine the Protestant ethic of work, that tradition which holds that it is man's moral duty to work, to improve God's creation as a route to personal salvation... It is becoming increasingly obvious, however, that no government or party, whatever its political persuasion and however optimistic its electioneering, can fulfil the 'right to work' in the sense of providing 'jobs' as we have traditionally known them, for all the country's potential workforce."

He went on to say, "that this recognition of the harsh realities of unemployment is a necessary pre-requisite to meaningful curriculum development."⁴

Quite clearly if this and similar views are correct, there will have to be significant changes to the present pattern of education and the changes will have great significance for the school librarian, for one of the major shifts in emphasis I see in these developments, is towards information handling skills and away from the traditional examinations system that has dominated secondary education (and in some countries even primary schools) throughout the world.

Education institutions have the task of preparing students for a future in which continuous education will be a requirement for all. Young people entering a job for the first time will face the possibility of having to retrain, move into new areas, several times during their working lives. As school librarians, we must share the responsibility, with our subject colleagues, of responding to these demands.

Clearly another important element for schools to recognize was the point made by the late Marshall McLuhan, the Canadian educator who had such influence on our thinking about mass communication. He said that today in our cities most learning occurs outside the classroom.

Television and other forms of mass communication are readily available in most homes and as educators we need to make greater use of this experience and not ask

students to shut it out of their minds when they enter our classrooms.

We also have to acknowledge that the problem for educators is compounded by social disparities among our student populations. The American sociologist Arthur Shostak notes a community of haves who are: "relatively quick to profit from the use of home computers, information banks, video recorders and other expensive aids, while the have nots glare enviously from the side lines. Lacking the requisite dollars and bereft as well of literacy and numeracy background, have nots become systematically and progressively more superfluous than before".⁵

There is nothing new in this. We all know that the best book readers have always tended to be from homes which contained a variety of reading material, with parents who took the time to share in their reading experiences and often with ready access to a good children's library. We will all know of children, who without this background, never got started on the path to effective education.

The question we must ask is whether the same will be true of the new technological skills?

The signs are that employers will be looking for employees with computer competence and information seeking skills.

How are schools to react to this situation? Will we try to teach such skills comprehensively to all students through all subject areas, or is there a danger that these skills will be taught on a selective basis?

In the UK we know the experience that many schools had with the concept of "Language across the curriculum" which made the suggestion that every teacher should take responsibility for developing language in his/her own subject field. In practice the response was disappointing.

Are we able to make sure that "Information skills across the curriculum" will not have the same track record?

I would suggest this can only be assured if school librarians become fully involved in this process.

Graham Gibbs, in a 1978 publication, said: "Learning to learn is not just another slogan. It denotes a specific pedagogic approach that teachers must themselves master if they want to pass it on to others."⁶

Gibbs reminds us that often the "best" essay comes not from the "best" pupil but from the student who has accurately predicted the teacher's intentions. A student can often score fairly high marks by giving the teacher what he or she wants, whereas a very able student may score fairly low marks by failing to perceive what the teacher wants. Recent

evidence suggests that teaching and learning styles have a great influence on the development of ability. Mismatch between learning and teaching style can cause problems for students.

Perhaps there is a role for the school library to play in alleviating this. If we now accept the need for schools to equip students for life-long learning, then information skills will be a major aspect of this development. Self-responsibility, self-direction are increasingly being recognized as important objectives for the school programme and this calls for well-designed resource-based programmes which equip students to handle sources of information efficiently.

Developmentally we can probably identify three basic approaches to the teaching of information skills, each in turn taking a somewhat wider view of what these skills involve.

The first, and I suppose most traditional approach, has been to see information skills as equivalent to "library skills" - the skills necessary to use a library effectively. We will all be familiar with the numerous publications that have been put forward giving guidelines for this approach, over the years. I see this as a rather narrow view of information skills. A second approach is concerned with not only finding the right information, but also making effective use of it when it has been found. This may be called a "study skills" approach and is a more recent development linking the use of libraries to the wider skills of reading development, taking notes and generally developing skills for more independent learning.

This approach has been further broadened to enable students to cope with the information environment outside the school.

This might be called a "life-skills" approach which embraces both the previous two, but sets them within the context of social as well as educational needs. It would take as its starting point the argument that the way in which information is handled in modern society has a great influence on the way in which people live, work and communicate and in essence, determines the quality of their lives.

In practice though these three approaches give emphasis to different aspects, they have much in common. An important element to developing these approaches is a recognition that as soon as you see information skills as something beyond just "library skills", then it becomes a partnership between the librarian and the teacher with a need to develop a total school policy for information skills across the curriculum.

There is plenty of evidence to suggest that the traditional "library lessons" have been ineffective in developing lasting and transferable information skills so what are the arguments in favour of an integrated "across the curriculum approach."

First the skills are taught functionally in the context of meaningful situations and are thus taught as tools to solve actual problems. The skills are more likely to be perceived as important and relevant, by the students. The skills when they are introduced are more likely to be put into immediate use and so are reinforced.

Many of the skills can be introduced by subject teachers and planned into their normal subject work.

It is clear that all the necessary skills will not be taught by letting them arise naturally from the curriculum, unless some well structured curriculum planning takes place.

A Whole School Policy will identify skills which will need to be mastered at particular stages in the students' education and these skills can then be planned into subject work as seems appropriate.

In this approach responsibility rests with every teacher, though clearly some strong leadership is needed. It would seem to be sensible to have some Coordinator within the school who can acquire and retain a broad perspective. Other teachers will be free to work more narrowly and deeply within their own subject field while still retaining their place in the overall scheme.

The Coordinator can hold the different threads together, establishing and fostering relationships and connections between the subject fields.

The Whole School Policy can be broken down into a series of more specialized activities which can be managed by smaller groups of staff.

What is the framework for the Whole School Policy?

Ann Irving in her useful publication "Study and information skills across the curriculum" has provided us with a useful model⁷.

First we have the initial definition of information skills which divides them into two categories

- (a) those which are common to all subjects
- (b) those which are specific to particular subjects.

These skills are then compared with the study problems identified by students and teachers. From these comparisons a final outline of common and specific skills is possible.

It is only at this stage that the examination of how these skills will be taught, is undertaken - first in a general way, looking at the range of teaching techniques, and support for these techniques available in the school, then looking more specifically at the

most appropriate approach for particular skills and students.

At the same time, in the overall planning process the provision of resources within the school and community must be investigated.

If students are to be expected to use information sources widely and to work much more on their own or in small groups, then the means for doing this must be available and this may require much greater cooperation between departments, creating and sharing materials to support units of work and above all providing adequate guides and guidance, to ensure full and effective use of all the school's learning resources.

It is clear that producing a school wide information skills policy requires the expertise of both teachers and librarians and so will depend upon the cooperation and knowledge of all members of staff for its successful implementation.

Information skills are pervasive across the curriculum and do not neatly divide up into those that can be covered by the English or History teaching teams.

By drafting a whole school policy, the school is making a statement about its concern and recognizing that without such a policy some important elements may be forgotten or unnecessarily repeated.

It is important that the Total Curriculum for information skills teaching is closely documented. This document then acts as a blue print for the operation, but remains flexible as lines can be erased or moved as the experience dictates.

Within your own schools you will need to ask the question of how this policy will be developed. There is of course no magic formula but if the aim is to achieve a document which all staff can agree to, then it would seem that a possible useful approach might be to hold a "conference" for all the staff, which might be addressed by knowledgeable experts from outside who could help to establish the right climate for discussion.

The advantage of starting with the "whole staff" is that multi-disciplinary discussions can take place from the start, for there is some evidence to suggest that discussions based on traditional departmental structures, inhibit across the curriculum policies.

From the staff conference you could then move into smaller working parties which will aim to draw up the range of skills which seem important for understanding and implementation of the knowledge base.

What is hoped will eventually emerge from this cooperative exercise, is a policy document which would be accepted by the total school. This document would need to cover a variety of elements such as:

Aims and Objectives

A Skills Taxonomy

A Curriculum Outline
A Resources Directory
An Evaluation Strategy

1. Aims: this will be a way of expressing how the staff feel about the importance of study and learning skills in the curriculum. It will be an attempt to answer the question of "Why information skills should be developed in the school" but in such a way that it can be understood by all concerned (including parents and school board officials).

2. Objectives: this will be largely looking at what we can expect students to achieve. It will be the basis for assessing their competencies.

3. Skills Taxonomy: this will consist of the common and subject specific skills identified by staff and students with appropriate input from published sources or other schools.

4. Curriculum Outline: this would be concerned with subject content and skills and would need to give an indication of sequence and timing for the teaching/learning process.

5. Resources Directory: we are on familiar ground here for this would need to include all the learning and teaching resources existing or in preparation within the school, supplemented by information about the resources available elsewhere in the community - including human resources.

6. Evaluation Strategy: it is obvious that we need to devise this strategy in advance because this is really a statement of intent.

If we know how the programme of skills will be assessed then we can focus attention on what should be achieved. This will introduce a degree of objectivity which it may be difficult to secure later.

This final Policy Document will be important, for it will become the working model for all teachers and, as indicated above, it would also serve as a guide for parents, governors, local school board personnel, politicians and the Inspectorate or Advisory team.

I am sure the importance of the Partnership between the teacher and the librarian in this process has become very clear. Both partners will need to work closely together to implement this policy.

They will need to develop strategies which will ensure success for the students.

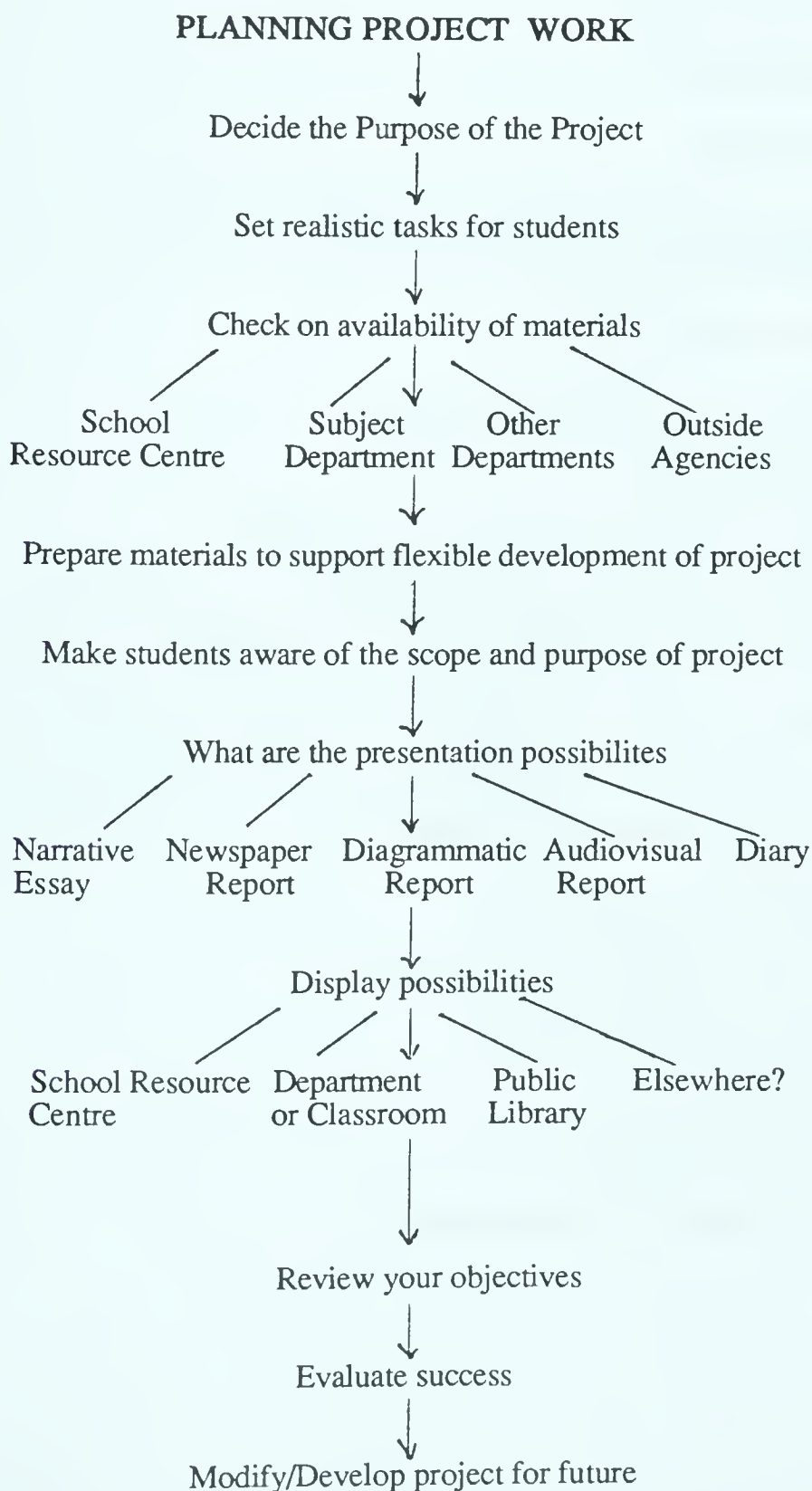
Research evidence suggests that it is not sufficient to teach information skills through explanation alone, but practise in exercising the skills is essential, if the student is to

develop and master the skills.

A familiar tool on the UK scene for developing these skills is Project Work - students becoming involved with an in depth study of a topic by their own research.

Experience has shown that the school librarian can do a great deal to help this approach.

To start with we can help the subject teachers plan for its introduction by developing an outline strategy.



We can also help the student to develop his own planning process.

The following questions may help to form a checklist for students. It might be useful to develop it as a bookmark which could be given to students when they start upon a project.

STUDENT PROJECT CHECKLIST

There seem to be four stages in this development.

1. Initial planning.
2. Use of resources.
3. Presentation.
4. Evaluation.

1. Initial Planning

What is the project about?

What do I have to do?

How long do I have to do it?

What am I required to produce/hand in?

2. Use of Resources

What do I already know about the subject/topic?

Where can I find the information I need?

How do I find what I want?

How do I choose the information?

How can I use the resources?

What should I make a record of?

Do I have the information I need?

3. Presentation

Who is it to be presented to?

What form should it take - what media?

How should it be presented?

4. Evaluation

What have I achieved?

How could I improve it?

Can it be used in other subject areas?

It may be possible to provide additional support for project work by developing worksheets which the student can use to help them in their planning. They could follow the initial checklist. (Examples from *Effective learning skills*, edited by Sam McKeown.⁸

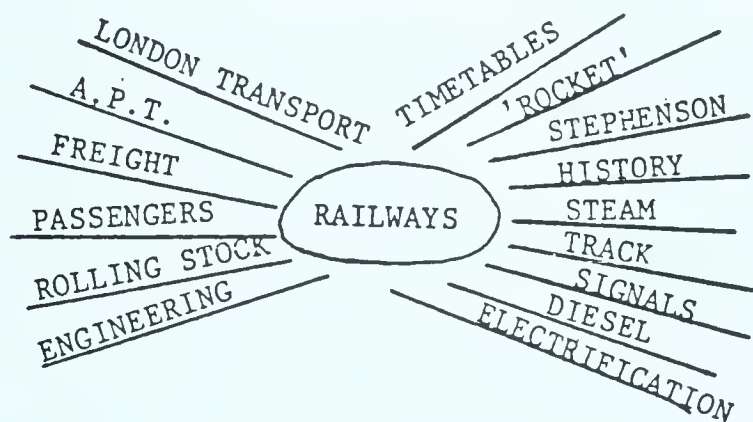
Ann Irving in the publication already mentioned suggests other ways to help the student for example a "Pupils' self-assessment schedule".⁹

In providing support for "project-work" the librarian faces two main problems:

- (1) Breaking the project into manageable parts.
- (2) Discovering if a resource provides the information needed for a particular part of the project.

It has been suggested by Crane and Johnson¹⁰ that a "Project Grid" can prove useful in this exercise. In this approach the student is encouraged to write down any item that they think will contribute to the topic as it comes to them, so that they end up with something like this example:

RAILWAYS



The varied ideas can then be sorted into a more logical structure with the resource support identified:

RESOURCES GRID		REFERENCE BOOKS			
		ENCYCLOPEDIA OF NATURE AND SCIENCE	NEW BOOK OF KNOWLEDGE	'HOW IT WORKS'	CHILDREN'S BRITANNICA
1. HISTORY OF LOCCMOTION					
	THE "ROCKET"	V. 11			V. 14
	STEAM	V. 11		V. 7	
	DIESEL		V. 16	V. 7	
	ELECTRIFICATION			V. 10	V. 14
2. BRITISH RAIL					
	HISTORY	V. 11			
	PASSENGERS			V. 7	V. 9
	FREIGHT				V. 9

Once this has been established as a useful strategy, the librarian can prepare such grids in advance for the students to use.

If this approach is to be successful it will require advance planning of the project and will demonstrate once again the need for the partnership between the librarian and the teacher - a move I am sure all here today would support.

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SCHOOL LIBRARY DEVELOPMENT IN ICELAND

Dr. Sigrún Klara Hannesdóttir

Some Basic Statistics on Iceland

Population: 245.000

Total area: 103.000 km² ...

Number of School Districts: 46

Total number of elementary schools: 215

Total number of students in elementary schools: 42,189

Total number of secondary schools: 62

(Including all post-elementary educational opportunity)

Total number of university level institutions: 3

Number of Publishers: 63

Annual number of books published: 917 (1984)

Number of bookshops: 108

1. THE ICELANDIC SCHOOL SYSTEM

Iceland was settled during the 9th and 10th century by vikings mainly from Norway who crossed the Atlantic Ocean on their boats to settle this island which was uninhabited at that time. On their voyages they frequently came to Ireland and the British Isles and the Sagas tell about Irish women who were brought here as captives and companions to those first settlers.

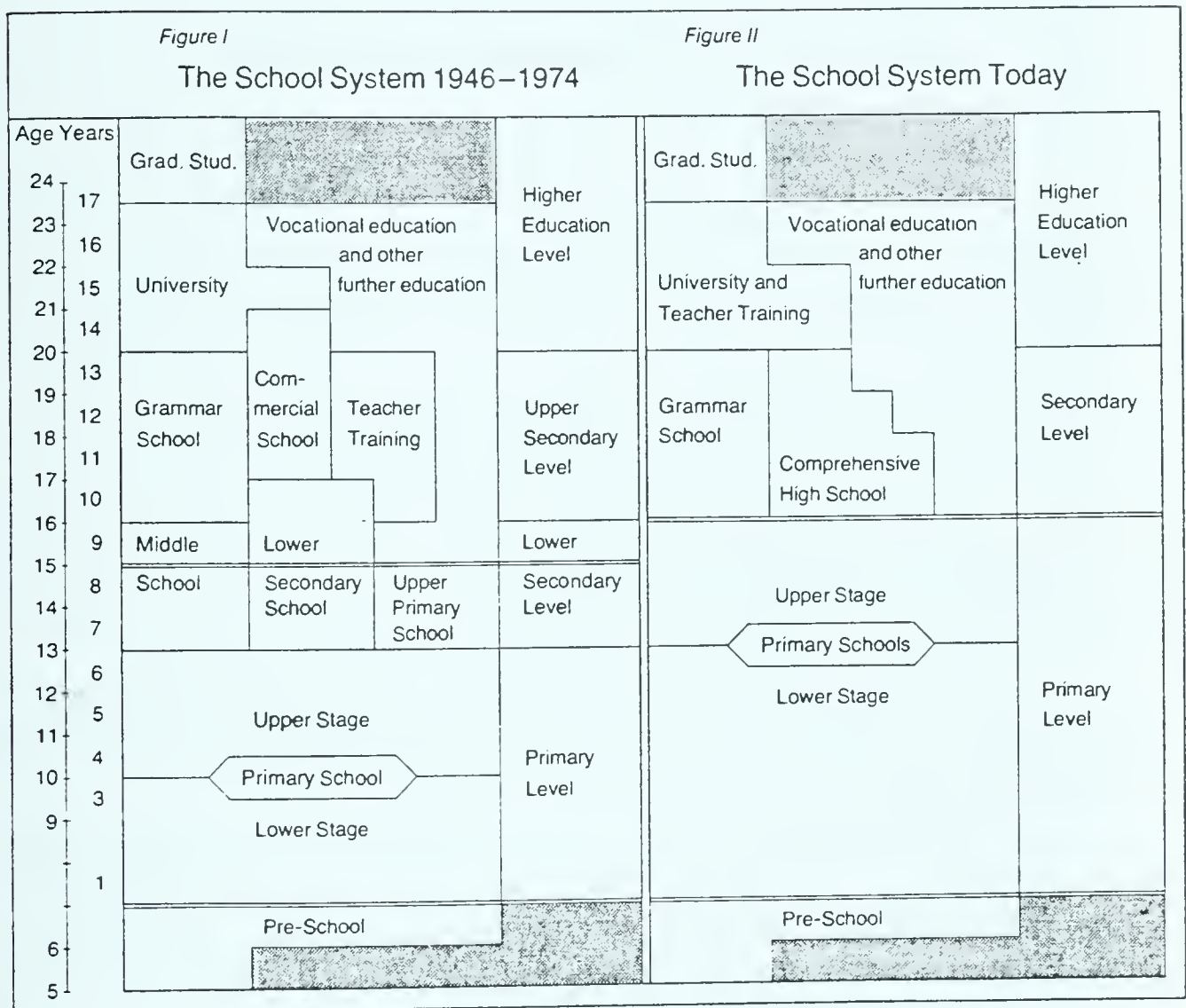
The Icelandic people have had a long tradition of literacy. Our main contribution to the world of literature were the Eddas and Sagas which were written in our vernacular in the 12th and 13th century when most other countries used Latin as their language of communication. Nobody has been able to explain fully why these viking rebels became suddenly such admirers of the written word but some have wished to search for an explanation in a stronger influence from Ireland than what we can establish through our Sagas. Whatever the explanation, it is a fact that general literacy has been very high, and as early as 1542 an Ordinance was issued which stated that all children in Iceland should learn to read.

In spite of earlier interest in literacy, during the 18th century, however, national disasters in the form of volcanic eruptions, destruction of farmland and animals, and consequent hunger and misery gave a sad picture of the country. In the 1740's a survey of educational and religious practices came to the conclusion that only about one-third of the population could read.

This situation changed again very rapidly and by 1800 another survey that claimed nearly the whole nation could read. The 19th century was a period of great cultural and political awakening which culminated in independence from Denmark. Iceland got her own constitution in 1874, became an independent sovereign state in 1918, and finally Iceland was declared a republic in 1944. Today we have a very general and high standard of living and high level of literacy and schooling.

The first schools in Iceland were established around 1000, connected to the church, but teaching of children was the responsibility of the homes. In 1907 and Education Act made education compulsory for all children from the age of 10-14. It was not obligatory to attend school but all children had to take a final examination to prove their knowledge. In 1946 the school system was divided into four educational levels and compulsory schooling became eight years. Another major educational change took place in 1974 when a total revision was made of the educational system with a new legislation. This is the legislation we still use with some revisions.

In brief our educational system is as follows:



Iceland. 1986. Handbook published by The Central Bank of Iceland, 1987. p. 261.

Compulsory education is 9 years, divided into two levels, 1-6th grade and 7-9th grade. Most schools in towns and villages offer now classes for 6 year old children also, but that is not compulsory. After the 9th year, the children can enter the secondary level at the age of 15. After four years of secondary school they can enter university at the age of 20.

Iceland is a sparsely populated country, a fact which leads to a great number of small schools.

SIZE OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS:

No of students	2-50	50-100	100-499	500-999	1000-
No of schools	74	32	85	22	2

2. HISTORY OF SCHOOL LIBRARIES

It is not easy to establish with any accuracy the origins of Icelandic school libraries. Books have been kept in schools through the ages, used by teachers and students alike.

The secondary schools were the first to establish library collections, such as the Grammar School in Reykjavík (Menntaskólinn í Reykjavík) our oldest secondary school and had its roots in the old Latin School in Bessastadir (1805-1846). This school got a school library building constructed in 1866 and that building was constructed for money donated by a British gentleman, Charles Kelsall.

The elementary schools were slower to realize the use of libraries within the school premises and also it must be taken into consideration that book publishing in Icelandic was not particularly suitable for extracurricular reading for young children. The more remarkable it is to find an article written in 1908 by a headmaster in Vestmannaeyjar, Mr. Steinn Sigurdsson, where he emphasized the children's need to have enough to read, and to make them search for knowledge beyond the textbooks. His arguments were that all children, especially the gifted, motivated students should be given good books to fulfil their need for knowledge, and that it would certainly not increase student's interest in classroom studies if they were deprived of other things to read.. He also warned against bad books because of the damaging effect on the young minds. His suggestions were

that every school should have a school library and in order to show the way he described how the children in his school organized programs and entertainment for the people in town and collected funds to buy books.

Children in Reykjavík enjoyed library services by the Women's Reading Society (Lestrarfélag kvenna) which operated a reading room for children for 25 years, 1912-1937. The Reykjavík Town Council provided a small sum for the project in 1912 which enabled the Reading Society to open a reading room with spaces for 30 children. The room was open 6 days a week from 4-6 p.m. The women helped the older children with their school work and had story hours for the younger. The main purpose was that the children could read their school books in peace and after their homework they were allowed to borrow something more entertaining and read for the rest of the opening hour. This seems to have been quite popular and in 1935-36 the reading room had 400 registered users.

The Reykjavík Public Library was opened in 1923 and in 1924 a reading room for children was opened in the Library's premises. When a new school was opened in Reykjavík in 1931, Austurbæjarskólinn, the Public Library opened a reading room there and this reading room was later developed into a branch library and became accessible to both adults and children. This way services of the original reading room were expanded. As new schools were established the Public Library opened and operated reading rooms for the children. In these reading rooms the children could enter at predetermined hours, sign up at entrance and could either read their own books, do their home work, or read the library books. No actual integration of school library material into the classroom operations took place and the book selection was mainly aimed at providing fiction for sparetime reading.

Earlier this century it was considered useful in some areas of the country to establish school libraries in order to free the homes from such burdens as the purchasing of expensive textbooks. The idea was that the parents should pay a fee to the school and the school in turn would make a better use of the collective funds to buy good and useful books to the schools. In a farming area in Adaldalur in the north of Iceland books were purchased this way and each home contributed to this collection in spite of severe economic conditions.

Two major educational reforms have taken place since the World War II, and the educational system has undergone great changes. In 1946 a new Education Act was passed and during the following years educationalists in Iceland travelled greatly abroad to study other educational systems and brought back a variety of impressions. We have mentioned the Education Acts of 1946 and 1974, and we will now look at the legal basis for school libraries.

3. PRESENT DAY SCHOOL LIBRARIES

According to the Primary Education Act from 1974, the role of the school is to prepare children for life in a democratic society based on Christian principles. The school is to strive to widen the children's horizon, develop their understanding of special conditions and their environments; the Icelandic society, its history and characteristics and the obligations of each individual to society. The school is also to foster independent thought and cooperative attitudes.

We can see from these brief excerpts on the role of the primary school how important the school library would be in achieving these goals. How can a child's horizon be widened without a strong collection of supplementary material to support the textbook? How can history be understood without research into many sources? How can independent thought be fostered without the challenge to learn to reach own conclusions from the comparison of many, hopefully contradictory sources? And in fact the Act made it compulsory to have school libraries in all elementary schools.

Prior to this named legislation, in 1968, the Director of Education in Reykjavík, Jónas B. Jónsson, appointed a committee of three primary school principals who were, along with the Director of the Public Library, to make proposals for the future development of school libraries. The committee agreed on the basic need for school libraries in all elementary schools, and a plan was set up to open school libraries in all schools in Reykjavík within the next 4-5 years. The purpose of these new libraries was very much in line with Anglo-Nordic trends in this area, i.e., that the school library was to form an integral part of the educational activities in the schools. The school library was to provide books, both for consultation and circulation, (if no public library was in the neighbourhood). The school library was to facilitate the training in independent learning and teach students to access sources of information to solve assignments.

By 1970 the City Council passed Regulations on the foundation and operation of school libraries for the city and a systematic organization of the school library system started. The City of Reykjavík still has an advantage over the rest of the country due to the centralized services and support system for the school libraries. Also the schools are in general larger than in most other towns in Iceland which in turn permits them better services and more acquisitions. Therefore, the city of Reykjavík initiated systematic school library development some years before it became mandatory to have school libraries.

According to the Education Act each community was given 10 years as an adjustment period and after that all schools were to fulfil these requirements. The

paragraph on school libraries is, unfortunately, very vague, and all elaboration was to be carried out through regulations. However, by the time the Regulations were to be written, a serious dispute had developed on who should operate these libraries, and now 13 years later, the Regulations for school libraries are the only ones which have never been issued by the Ministry of Education.

The two paragraphs in that legislation which have had the most limiting effect on school library development - in addition to the absence of more specific guidelines - is a paragraph stating that the number of books for each school should be equal to 10 titles per student and that the number of hours allocated to the school library work shall amount to one class hour for each 30 students in grade 5 to 9. These two paragraphs have almost a devastating effect on the smallest schools, - and may I remind you that many of our schools have fewer than 50 students. This means that the school library in such a school is not supposed to grow beyond 500 volumes and the time allocated to school library operations does not reach even 2 hours per week.

In view of an Education Act which makes it mandatory to have school libraries, one might assume that all schools have libraries by now, but it is not so, not even in name. I doubt that we would find many schools in Iceland totally without books or material supplementary to the textbooks. However, integration of the school library into the curriculum is still far from being universal.

Research is needed to establish the exact status of school libraries in the country's 215 elementary schools, but deducing from the average size of most of our schools, it can only be the larger schools which are capable of providing the services needed. Preliminary annual statistics on school libraries from 1984-1985 to the Directorate of Public and School Libraries cover only 37 schools, of which 18 are outside Reykjavík.

I believe that the school library organization in this country to a large extent is based on a different foundation than in many other countries. Here we introduced school libraries in order to change the teaching methods rather than to meet the demands of the teachers already in need of more material. This has meant that the school librarian has been given a more demanding role in this context and a more influential role to play.

The development of secondary school libraries has been quite different because of the fact that there is no unified legislation covering all secondary education. Many of the special schools have their own legislation, with or without a mention of school libraries. Most of the grammar schools and comprehensive community colleges do have a library and a professional librarian in charge but other schools, such as the College of navigation, Fish processing, etc. etc., do not have a library or a librarian.

4. AVAILABILITY OF MATERIAL

In spite of a very high level of literacy, in fact the highest obtainable level, books publishing in Iceland is limited due to the small market. A publisher needs to sell some minimum number of copies in order for his efforts to be worth while. Therefore we experience the contradiction of the highest publication rate per capita of any country in the world, statistically speaking, but nevertheless we are in need of much more material in our language, especially material for children.

The number of books published in Iceland is around 900-1250 titles per year. Out of those 100-150 are children's books, and the availability of non-fiction for children to support regular school library operations is sadly limited. Fiction for children translated into Icelandic averages about 100 titles per year. The vast majority of these come from the English speaking world. The large number of French books can be explained by the long series of Asterix and similar cartoons.

TRANSLATIONS INTO ICELANDIC

COUNTRY of origin.		1976	'77	'78	'79	'80	'81	'82	'83	Total
USA UK Australia Canada	(823)	31	32	53	49	53	44	47	44	353
Germany	(833)	4	3	4	3	2	9	7	3	35
Netherlands	(839.313)				3	4	3	4		14
Norway	(839.63)	4	1	2	2	4	3	1	4	21
Faroe Islands	(839.693)			1	1					2
Sweden	(839.73)	9	12	16	20	21	8	9	8	103
Denmark	(839.83)	1	4	4	7	8	14	14	13	65
France	(843)	8	23	31	29	35	22	18	14	180

To be cont.

Cont.

TRANSLATIONS INTO ICELANDIC

COUNTRY of origin.	1976	'77	'78	'79	'80	'81	'82	'83	Total
Spain (863)			10				1	1	12
Portugal (869.3)								1	1
Finland (894.5413)							1	1	2
	58	75	121	114	127	104	101	88	788

AVERAGE NUMBER OF TRANSLATED FICTION PER YEAR..... 98.5

The availability of reading material to children in Iceland is not limited to the school libraries. Home libraries are very common, and in a questionnaire which was carried out in 1979, it was concluded that 92.3% of children of the age 0-6 years owned books, and 100% of the children from 7-15 years of age. This is probably in part due to a long tradition of giving books as presents for Christmas. In a questionnaire carried out in Akranes, a fishing-town on the West coast, it was found that 94.6% of the children (age 14 and 16) had received books as presents for Christmas and birthdays.

One may conclude that the home library tradition supplements the often meager school library collections, but the development of public libraries, school libraries and the general market depends on the willingness of the publishers to make available quality literature for children and young people, and also on the willingness of the parents to buy good books for children.

Textbooks are provided for free for all compulsory education. A government textbook institution, Námsgagnastofnun, provides these texts. Other publishers, in general, cannot market textbooks, and the government will not purchase such books in quantity for distribution to school children.

5. EDUCATION OF SCHOOL LIBRARIANS

Two main streams have been maintained in this country on how to train school librarians. On the one hand we have those who claim that the school library is not a library and consequently the person serving there does not need library training as such. These are the "school library teachers" and they want to set up a training program for school librarians within the Teachers Training College.

The University of Iceland, which houses the Library and Information Science Program, as well as teacher training for secondary school teachers, offers a one year program for teachers. This program offers courses in organization of library material, bibliography and reference, children's literature and audio-visual media and a course on school library management. The courses are taught within the regular library program and the credits earned equal a minor in library science.

The Ministry of Education made an effort to approach the issue of qualifications, and in 1984 a ministerial decree outlined two types of educational requirements acceptable for the elementary school librarian:

1. Qualified teacher with the one year's additional study in library science; and
2. Qualified librarians with one year's additional study in education.

However, this decree does not seem to have changed the situation. Due to the circumstances this is still a problem, and it is difficult to find solutions if there is not even interest in talking about the problem. In fact no real efforts have been made to search for a compromise which everybody could live with. I know that the problem is not unique to Iceland and most countries have had to go through this development one way or another, but we seem to be stuck on two different roads and the issue seems to center around persons rather than any tangible professional disagreements. It is sad to have to admit that we are no closer to a solution now than we were years ago. It is also sad to have to admit to this audience that a country with such a long tradition of democracy should not be able to do something about it.

It is my strong conviction that this situation has damaged the school library development considerably. It has prevented the completion of Regulations for school libraries, it has prevented all development of school library programs and a progressive program to train teachers in the new methodology of teaching information skills along with the subjects themselves.

6. ASSOCIATIONS OF SCHOOL LIBRARIANS

School library personnel is divided into several associations. The Association of School Library Teachers allows members that are hired to the school as teachers. They form a section of the Union of Elementary Teachers.

Secondary school teachers, elementary school librarians employed as school librarians but with a library degree only, and people working on centralized school library services cannot join this association. Another association was formed, Skólavardan, as a forum open to all school library personnel and anybody associated with or interested in school library development. Some school library teachers are members of both. The fragmentation of the field goes even beyond this. The Association of Professional Librarians is a growing association and is increasing in strength with an increased number of library graduates and with the new legalization of their professional title. Many of the secondary school librarians are members of that association and the present as well as the past presidents of the Professional Association are both secondary school librarians, and as such have been very active on that front.

7. FUTURE TRENDS

What does the future hold for school library development in Iceland? As far as I can see we can be optimistic. In a small, rather rich community like Iceland new developments are quick to reach, and computers and information technology are now coming into the schools. As in other countries the hard-ware is much easier to develop than the software and the use of the computer is still very much limited to elementary skills, such as word processing.

There are inevitably some dangers in a small society like Iceland that the mass media, such as the proliferation of radio stations and a second television station will have a damaging effect on the book market. If people read less, it is very quickly sensed by the market. Then comes the question whether a well developed school library system could

not help the market. My experience as a publisher - and I was one of the founders of Bjallan, a publishing company specializing in non-fiction for children - is that the schools can have a very positive effect on books sales and it helps much to have a secure market of a few hundred copies when we are talking about an average edition of 1000-1500 copies per title.

However, if the schools neglect to teach the children proper use of the written word as a source of information, experience and entertainment, and the school libraries do not have the capability to develop into indispensable agents within the school, then we will be in deep trouble as a nation with a limited number of readers who can use this language.

In my mind the school library has a very important role in preserving Icelandic culture and identity. The school library is a bridge between the reality as presented in a textbook and the versatile society out there. As such it will be a crucial gateway to introducing our children to recorded knowledge about Icelandic society and the world as a whole.

INTEGRATING THE SCHOOL LIBRARY INTO EVERYDAY SCHOOL WORK

Marit Helle

Norway is a long and a narrow country with a population of 4 million, but because of its shape, the distance from north to south is rather long, equals that of Chicago to New Orleans or from Caracas to the Amazon.

Children enter school at the age of 7. All children - including the physically and mentally handicapped - get a minimum of 9 years of schooling, 6 years of lower and 3 years of higher elementary school.

The school libraries have been compulsory by law since 1947 in the Norwegian Library Act. The school library legislation has just been transferred from the Public Library Act to the School Act. The new law came into force in 1986. The effect of the move remains to be seen.

In elementary schools most librarians will be teachers. Some of the teacher-librarians have an introductory course in school librarianship. A few counties have appointed professionally trained librarians to work at the school libraries. We have in Norway about 3500 elementary schools and the size of them varies from less than 50 to 700 pupils.

The teacher-librarian either gets paid extra for work in the school library or has reduced teaching.

Quite often the teacher-librarian has not been given sufficient time for the school library work, and to keep the library service on a certain quality level, she or he may be forced to spend some of her/his spare time. This makes being a school-librarian a less favourable job, which leads to frequent change of the person in charge. And we also get great difference from county to county.

In brief, the counties arrange school library service in many different ways. I, myself, am a fully qualified librarian and work in the elementary school and I have done so since 1971. I work in a county near Oslo, and we have in our county 30 schools and every school has a professional librarian.

Our county is the only one in Norway that has invested so much in school libraries. We have our own pedagogic center which coordinates our work and we also work close with the public library.

Now I've given a short background for the situation in Norway and want to talk about the visions and wishes on the use of the school library, expressed by the school

authorities in official documents and also how we run our school libraries in my community.

The purpose and definition of the school library:

1. The purpose of the school library is to further the general aim of the school plans, to supply teachers and pupils with literature and support the school's pedagogical goals.
2. The school library has a general cultural purpose as well- to ensure access to good, valuable literature, stimulate leisure reading, encourage pleasure in reading and guide pupils in choosing books.
3. The school library is to give the teachers access to books and technical aid to enable them to be informed about development in subjects and teaching ideas.
4. The school library is also to have a social function - a room for everyone - to be a place where pupils enjoy spending their time both when working with assignments and when having time off.

Today we have a fairly new law giving instructions for the libraries - a new paragraph about school library in the School Act and a new teaching plan for the elementary school - all given by central authorities. All these factors are included in the guidelines and frames for the operations of the school libraries.

- The new Library Act establishes cooperation between public library and school library.

The county has to regard the library services to children and young adults as one and make a plan including both public libraries and school libraries. Due to the population pattern in our country, the school library is often the only book collection available for children.

- Through the new school library legislation the school authorities have assumed the formal responsibility for the school library.
- By enforcing the new school plan - more weight will be put on adjusting teaching to the students' level of ability and on projects across the curriculum. Teaching local matters is equally important. Teachers planning is vital to be able to fulfill the

aims of this new plan. More weight will also be put on organizing and adapting literature and audio-visual means.

This work demands a well functioning school library.

How to organize the school library:

The collections and services of the school library have to be extensive enough to give both pupils and teachers real options in class. There has to be literature on a wide variety of topics and on different level of difficulty.

In the school library there has to be a room with a basic collection of books and which functions as a reading room as well as an ordinary library from which students can take books home.

In addition to the basic collection of books, there are more areas where the librarian is in charge.

- A classroom library consisting of fiction and non-fiction. These books are taken from the basic collection and remain in the classroom for a longer period of time.
- A teachers' library with handbooks, books on teaching methods, textbooks, magazines etc. etc. This collection may often be in the basic room.
- Book collections in special rooms such as the laboratories, the music room, the domestic science room, etc.
- Audio-visual collection of videos, cassettes, dias, film etc, etc.
- Sets of books, fiction as well as non-fiction intended for groups of students or full classes.

All the above mentioned collections have to be catalogued centrally in the basic library. To be able to find the teaching aid or the book you want, everything from all collections has to be organized in the same system as the public libraries.

The responsibility for the collections and services.

In order to make the library function as determined in its purpose and definition, financial and human resources must be given guidelines and directives for the school library and plans for time resources to run the school library should be worked out.

In the school system today, with modern pedagogic demands and in order to accomplish the intentions of the new school plan - the service of the school library should be as much a matter of course as the guidance services in the school.

- The school librarian has to know the year's plans, term plans and the plans for classroom periods to be able to coordinate literature and teaching aid for different classes and groups.
- The school librarian must take part in planning the projects to guide teachers in which books to use and to get some knowledge of the different levels of ability in class.
- Then the librarian orders necessary books - technical aid from external collections such as the public library and the pedagogical center.
- The school librarian guides and informs both teachers and pupils about new books - helps to stimulate reading and is responsible on the same level as teachers for the students' use of the library.

How the school library is being used:

When the school library functions well with a well organized book- and audio-visual collections and has a room, not occupied by classroom teaching and has a librarian employed, there is a wide range of possibilities for the teachers and pupils to use the library.

1. Projects across the curriculum:

—The teachers and the librarian cooperate preparing the project including finding the topics, preparing the assignments and arranging and organizing the literature. As the teachers and the librarian have felt that this is a good way of working, the pupils have been taken into the planning of the projects. This is important because it makes the pupils feel responsibility for the project and that the project belongs to them too. It is important that the librarian takes part in this work - it makes it easier to give good guidance. In the accomplishment of the projects - the pupils use the library as their own room. By working there it is easy for them to get additional literature when needed. To work in the library instead of in the classroom seems to motivate and inspire the pupils in their assignments. Besides there is an extra adult - the librarian - to give help and guidance.

While working with projects it is important that, all resources - the books, the audio-visual material, institutions and persons from outside etc, etc, are registered. Later the library will have a full list of projects - ideas - assignments, references useful in the future.

—Quite often when pupils work on their own, individually, they are sent to the library to get further information. The teacher feels safe in doing so, knowing that the pupil will receive help and guidance from the librarian.

2. Spontaneous use of the library:

—Pupils discussing, arguing or deeply concerned about something, use the library naturally to find solutions to the questions/problems. This use of the library is increasing. The pupils in our county have through lower classes and now in secondary school been accustomed to a well equipped school library. They regard the school library as an obvious place to seek information. A good school library also develops good public library users and the public libraries have noticed this - they have an increasing number of visitors from the school.

3. Lending books for recreation:

—The school library is open to pupils during school breaks. Then the students have the opportunity to borrow books for leisure and homework. The library does also have a wide range of articles from newspapers and magazines for the pupils to borrow and use when working with their assignments. The library is used as a meeting place - during breaks a place to read magazines, look through books, play cards. In general the library is a nice place to spend some time.

4. Library work as an optional topic:

— In the 9th grade - the last year at our school, the pupil may choose library work once a week. During these lessons they get theoretical and practical teaching in how the library is organized. They also get general knowledge about our national library systems, the university libraries, public libraries and school libraries. They have taken part in picking out titles, they have learned how to order books and made them ready for others to borrow, how the routines of lending out books are. They have had book-talks in classes - made exhibitions and found literature for other pupils. They have been good at marketing the library among the other pupils.

Here I have stated some ways of using the library as a technical aid and as a pedagogical resource.



ONLINE INFORMATION SERVICES IN SCHOOLS

Joyce Kirk

INTRODUCTION

Developments in computers and telecommunications technology over the last twenty years have led to the growth of public online information retrieval services which store massive amounts of information on a wide range of subjects, and make it available to users almost instantly. The availability of this information has enormous implications for education, highlighted in a recent report to the Commonwealth Schools Commission by the National Advisory Committee on Computers in Schools (1986, 5):

Schools have responsibility for assisting all children to become effective participants in societies which use electronic information systems for wide a range of purposes. Acceptance of this responsibility will require that schools and teachers maximize opportunities for children to explore the potential of computers to enhance communication and enrich learning... Information in our society is becoming increasingly accessible through computer-controlled technology. Thus there is a responsibility for schools to provide experiences that enable children to acquire the knowledge and skills to operate comfortably with this technology. The assumption... is that providing children with real opportunities to acquire knowledge and skills... will contribute to the provision of a broad and comprehensive general education which will equip students... for the lifelong process of shaping new information technologies to the requirements of their continually changing environment.

Online information services from remote databases are one of the electronic information systems which have a definite role in the school curriculum as information resources and learning tools. There is increasing recognition of the role of these services in schools by leaders in the information industry itself. At the Information Online Conference in Australia early in 1986, Roger Summit called for a fourth 'R' to be added to the school curriculum - reading, 'riting', 'rithmetic' and retrieval. (Summit, 1986, 14) Carlos Cuadra, President of the California-based Cuadra Associates, warned the 1987 Information Online Conference that people who did not have the skills to use online

services information services would become part of the economically and socially disadvantaged, the new "information poor". (Cuadra, 1987 19).

EDUCATIONAL RATIONALE FOR ONLINE INFORMATION SERVICES

In developing an educational rationale for using online information services in schools, it is important to consider both the information provided and the technology used for accessing the information. Similar considerations will be familiar to those who have already provided information services dependent on technologies other than computers, for example, micro-fiche, film, audio-cassette and videotape.

1. Online Information Services as Information Resources

One of the most commonly-held aims of education and schooling is the development of students as independent and autonomous learners, who have the skills, knowledge, and attitudes necessary for lifelong learning. The main reason for the emphasis on independent and lifelong learning is that we live in a world characterised by change - political, social, economic, scientific, and technological change. Solutions to the challenges of this decade will not be applicable necessarily in the next decade. Not only will the solutions be inappropriate, but also new challenges will have arisen.

In the past twenty years or so, there has been a marked shift in education from a focus on teaching to one on learning. Students in schools are encouraged to develop principles and apply processes rather than learn facts and answers. They learn how to learn rather than what to learn, and in doing so, they are expected to take more responsibility for their own learning.

Effective independent learning programmes assume a large degree of educational experience structured to meet the needs of individual learners. Students' capacities are developed when they are required by the students themselves rather than by a syllabus and the recognition of students as people with unique talents and interests is fundamental to student-centred learning.

Resource-based learning is one approach which fosters independent and individualized learning. It allows students to:

learn from (their) own direct confrontation ... with a learning resource
or set of resources, and activities connected to them... (Beswick, 1977) ix)

It is an approach which takes account of students' individual differences, particularly their preferred learning styles, rates of learning, interests, abilities, and confidence levels. Online information services have potential as learning resources in schools, catering for students' individual differences. They can be added to the range of resources already available to students and teachers through school libraries and their networks.

Although use of these services is in its infancy in Australian schools, there is research evidence from the United States which gives an indication of the benefits of online information services in widening the range of information resources available. One study demonstrated that online searching introduced a new dimension of current information resources to students, particularly government documents and conference proceedings. (Wozny, 1982) This was confirmed in a recent survey which indicated that students used online services for information on topics appearing in popular literature and newspapers. (Aversa and Mancall, 1987, 16)

A comparison of online and manual searching in schools identified a larger number of resources located through online searching. Manual searches identified an average of eight references, with most students taking about thirteen minutes to locate one source. Online searches identified twelve sources in about one minute. (Kachel, 1985) In addition to expanding the number of resources and presumably enhancing the relevance of those resources to different students, in one school online information services resulted in the development of two new skills - reading and interpreting print-outs, and writing abstracts (Fiebert, 1985).

2. The Technology of Online Information Services

There are many equipment options available for online searching but it is computer dependent. One option common in schools is a micro-computer with communications software plus a modem and a telephone connection. Virtually any micro-computer can be used and communications software is available for almost all types of micro-computer hardware. The software is necessary so that the micro-computer can actually link through the telephone with the large computers hosting the online services and send and receive messages and information. Software available includes Apple Access II for the Apple, Comstar for the BBC Acorn, and Crosstalk for the IBM PC. The modem is the piece of hardware which physically links the micro-computer to the telephone, and software enables the search process to go ahead.

In addition to having suitable equipment, schools will also need to subscribe to the online information services they plan to use. Once they pay their subscriptions, they will

receive a user code or identification and password, along with instructions for using the service.

Any observation of students using computers in schools raises questions about how they think and learn. Several leading educators claim that the interactive nature of computers requires the use of higher level cognitive skills. Papert's development of LOGO allows students in elementary school to program computers and by doing so to control them. In programming computers in this way, students learn more about their own thinking processes and strategies. Papert sees students as active participants in learning with computers and argues that there are exciting possibilities for students to learn, think, and grow emotionally and cognitively.

He writes of learning in a computational environment as encouraging an "empowering sense of one's own ability to learn anything one wants to know". (Papert, 1984, 20) Online information services are part of a school's computational environment and they serve to demonstrate the role that computers play in information retrieval and in telecommunications. Online services extend the computer repertoire well beyond games, simulations, and drill and practice. They present students with an opportunity to exploit the computer's facility for processing, communicating, accessing, and storing information.

Ken Sinclair, the co-ordinator of an IBM Project in Australian secondary schools, also suggests that the use of computers makes a significant contribution to the development of students' thinking and reasoning skills, specifically in the area of "analysis, synthesis, decision-making, problem solving and evaluation". (Sinclair, 1986, 3) Sinclair claims that flexible, adaptive, and independent thinking can be encouraged through information handling with computers. In a similar vein, Judith Askey (1986) suggests that with information technology, students perform at more advanced levels than expected. An online dictionary for instance, is more responsive to experimentation than its hardcopy equivalent and the searching flexibility it offers demands a thoughtful approach from its users.

It is this flexibility which provides students with another tool for approaching a particular information task. Students have not always been able to express an information need adequately when encountering traditional printed and indexed sources. The online information search process may assist students in this regard as they match their natural language terms to those used in online searches and refine their searches while they are in progress.

A study comparing manual and online searching in schools has indicated different student-teacher and student-student interaction levels. The online process was found to

stimulate more interaction among teachers, students, and teacher librarian as the search was formulated and the information retrieved. (Levinson and Walcott, 1985) The researchers make the point that because technology often causes teachers to re-evaluate their traditional strategies, there is a likelihood that the same level of interaction can be achieved through more traditional manual searching.

Increased levels of interaction on an organisational basis have also occurred through online searching by students. At Radnor High, where student access to online information services has been provided since 1979, media specialist Elyse Fiebert (1987, 20) has found that provision of the service underscores the concept of community resources and a willingness by different information agencies to share resources and talent.

3. Online Information Services in Information Skills Programme

Information skills programs integrated across the curriculum set the educational and pedagogical contexts for online information services. Information skills are part of the processes concerned with meaning, understanding, knowing, doing, thinking, imagining, expressing and communicating. They are a component of self-directed learning in which students make their own choices and take responsibility for their own learning. Life-long learning, so essential for the management of personal, social, and technological change, also draws on information skills.

Information skills underpin a newly-coined literacy, information literacy, which is related to literacy and computer literacy. The Information Industry Association of the U.S. has described this new literacy as knowing "the techniques and skills for using information tools in moulding solutions to problems". (Garfield, 1979, 210) Information literacy is characterised by an integrated set of skills, knowledge and attitudes which are developed by meeting information needs. (Tessmer, cited in Breivik, 1986,10).

Information skills are broadly based and are embedded in the educational programs of schools. Their effective development depends not only on students' access to a wider range of information resources and tools selected by teachers and teacher-librarians. It depends also on students' skills in defining an information task, locating, selecting, processing and using information to complete that task.

There have been several attempts recently to define and delineate information skills in Australian schools, and to develop appropriate curriculum guidelines. In the New South Wales, Victorian, South Australian, and Western Australian Education Departments, work is being done on the development of policies or statements on information skills in

the school curriculum. These draft or final documents acknowledge the importance of skills in accessing and using information in computer-based formats as well as information in print and audiovisual formats. In the New South Wales Department of Education, work has also been done on evaluating online information services which appear to offer some advantages for schools. In Western Australia, the School Libraries Section of the Library Association of Australia has produced a report on Online Information Services for Schools. The Commonwealth Schools Commission, late in 1986, announced substantial funding for a project to investigate the information needs of schools and to develop new standards for school library service as a result. The project is expected to address the impact of new and emerging information technologies on meeting the information needs of schools.

Using one of the more recently developed information skills frameworks as an example, it is evident that online information services can be used as both an information resource and as a learning tool.

An Information Skills Process Framework

Define purpose

Review personal skills and knowledge Clarify information task

Locate sources of data

Develop a manageable search plan

Gather sources - print, non-print, and human.

Select data

Locate data in sources ,

Assess relevance if data,

Assess credibility of data,

Record selected data and their sources.

Process information

Combine data into units of information,

Combine units of information into a structure,

Review structure.

Present information

Decide how to present structured information,

Present information.

Evaluate task

Evaluate content ,

Evaluate structure,

Evaluate responses to the task.

(Based on Teaching Information Skills K-12: Draft Guidelines Document
New South Wales Department of Education, 1987)

Online information services can be used in each of these six process phases. In order to define their purposes, students may wish to access an online directory, encyclopaedia, or airline schedule. Online services may provide sources of data, especially where no

hardcopy is available, and they will assist students in developing and refining their search plans. It is in this second phase that students will consider the benefits and the disadvantages in using online services. Print-outs and down-loaded records will be used to select data and to process information. The products of online services may be relevant also when the information is presented and the information task is evaluated.

It is important to note that online information services supplement other information sources available to students. Any decisions to use online information services should be based on a consideration of the sort of information available through them and the learning outcomes which are expected. At times, other technologies such as films, books, or CD-ROM will be more appropriate in meeting the information and learning needs of students.

ONLINE INFORMATION SERVICES

There are now Australian and overseas databases available which cover almost every conceivable subject. Some are very specialised, like Streamline, a water resources information database; others, like Information Express, are general news and information services. Others, such as Telecom offer business information, news and weather, educational services, telebanking, travel information, in addition to specialised services.

The AP (Associated Press) or AAP (Australian Associated Press) databases are general news and information services. Costs vary for different services, as does the quality and type of information provided. Online information services or databases are made available to users through information utilities, which usually offer several databases or services, produce the search manuals, offer training in online searching, publicize the services, and provide the computing, organisational, and billing services on which the system depends. In a sense, they are the large brokerage firms of the information world.

The California-based DIALOG utility, for instance, makes available more than two hundred and twenty databases of various kinds, from highly specialised scientific services to general information services like AP and the full text of the King James Bible. SDC-ORBIT, another larger American utility, also makes available a large number of databases or services, including some that are offered through DIALOG too. In Australia, AUSINET, operated by ACI Computer Services, has more than forty databases, including Australian Art Index, Australian Education Index, the Australian Earth Sciences Information System, and Family, the Australian family studies database. A new Australian utility, CSIRO's AUSTRALIS, also offers several databases, including

Streamline. STARS/CTC, another relatively new Australian utility, markets its services particularly to schools, and offers The Australian Encyclopaedia, The Macquarie Dictionary and ERIC. (Educational Resources Information Centre) online. Some utilities offer only one or two databases; others offer a large number.

The 1987 report on Online Information Services for Schools, produced by the Library Association of Australia's School Libraries Section, Western Australian branch, identifies four categories of online information services and videotex services. It should be stressed, however, that in the case of the first three, at least, these divisions are becoming increasingly arbitrary as the older more established utilities which originally offered cataloguing information or reference citations to their users add to their range of services. Their newer services often incorporate full text, electronic mail facilities and offerings to meet emerging user needs. For example, the Australian Schools Cataloguing Information Services (ASCIS) has broadened its services to include reviews or resources and abstracts of curriculum related documents.

The computer-based cataloguing service most familiar to Australian educators is ASCIS, the national cataloguing information service for Australia's approximately 10,000 schools. Established in 1983, it currently provides catalogue records to schools in the form of catalogue card sets, micro-fiche, or machine-readable records on floppy disc. for loading into the school's own computer-based library catalogue. Teacher librarians can search the database on micro-fiche, or dial up and search online. An online ordering service for records is expected in August or September, 1987, and plans are being made for an electronic mail facility.

There are other cataloguing information utilities which cater to the needs of a wide range of libraries. These include ABN (Australian Bibliographic Network), a co-operative computer-based national bibliographic service used by academic, public, and some school libraries, OCLC, an American cataloguing information service, and BLAISE-LINE in the United Kingdom.

Examples of bibliographic services of interest to teachers include ERIC, available through DIALOG, SDC-ORBIT, and STARS/CTC; Australian Education Index on Ausinet; and ACIN (the Australian Curriculum Information Network), available through ASCIS from ACI Computer Services. Curriculum-related bibliographic services include Family on AUSINET; Sport on SDC-ORBIT; and Energy-line on DIALOG AND SDC-ORBIT. Examples of full text information services with curriculum applications include the AAP (Australian Associated Press) news service; the Australian Bureau of Statistics information on I.P. SHARP and AUSINET; and the Academic American Encyclopedia on Compu Serve, DIALOG and BRS.

Videotex services, where information is presented as a series of frames, have increased in popularity in the last few years. Telecom Australia's Viatel service is the videotex service with which the Australian public is most familiar; it offers general information and such specialised services as the architecture database, Archidata, or the country service, Country-Wise. Other Australian videotex services include Elderlink, from Elders, which offers agricultural, financial, and general information, and Infowest, a tourist and public information service created by the Western Australian Department of Computing and Information Technology.

There are directories available which help potential users to identify online information services which might meet their needs. In the United States, Cuadra Associates of California produce a regular international directory of online databases, (Cuadra/Elsevier, 1986) listing thousands of services. In Australia, the Australian Database Development Association produces a Directory of Australian Databases available as a printed book, or online through AUSINET (Australian Database Development Association, 1986). In addition, the report on Online Information Services for Schools (1987) lists many of the services, with contact information.

CURRENT USES OF ONLINE SERVICES

Online services are currently being used in primary and secondary schools, state and independent, country and city, in all major curriculum areas. While the number of school users is not large at present, it is growing rapidly. This growth has been encouraged by several factors, some related to developments in education and others related to developments in the information industry.

There is an increasing emphasis on information skills programs with an across-the-curriculum focus and a recognition that online information services are becoming more important as sources of current information on a wide variety of subjects. Computer-based services like Viatel and STARS/CTC have added a great deal of curriculum-related material to their databases in the past year or so. For example, ERIC is now available online in Australia through CTC. Computer-based school library management systems like the Lothlorien Integrated Micro-Computer Library System which incorporates communications software have been installed in such a way as to bring school libraries into the students' computational environment. ASCIS has encouraged teacher librarians and school administrators to think in terms of computer networks and communications and has highlighted some of the educational benefits made possible by computerisation.

The OLISS Report referred to earlier suggests curriculum applications of online information services, and gives examples of lesson plans and curriculum units in primary and secondary schools. Following are some of the areas where specific services are relevant:

- * Using public information databases on Viatel, including news, whether, financial information, consumer information, as source of current facts and data for classroom and project work, in the same way that print or audio-visual resources would be used.
- * Using banking and travel services on Viatel and Elderlink in primary and early secondary school mathematics and geography classes (for instance, students calculate the shortest or cheapest way to go, work out arrival times, travel times, and so on).
- * Carrying out literature searches on the Family database on AUSINET for secondary home economic projects.
- * Providing access to current careers and tertiary study information through the tertiary education information on Viatel.
- * Using online services like the Australian Associate Press (AAP) news service in upper primary school current events classes and for studies of media reporting.
- * Helping students to develop appropriate information retrieval skills through the preparation, carrying out, and evaluation of searches.
- * Using the electronic mail facility on any of the services, for example, Acadex on Viatel, to send messages to other schools or to work on joint projects, such as comparative environmental studies.

As well as information for use with classes, online information services offer professional information of use to teachers and school administrators in planning for class work, for keeping up-to-date with developments in education, and for ideas for school programmes and activities. Services available include the following:

- * Australian Education Index, a bibliographic service on AUSINET, which covers books, articles, reports theses, on all aspects of Australian education.
- * ACIN (the Australian Curriculum Information Network), available through ASCIS, which gives access to a wide range of curriculum-related and educational documents and reports from around Australia, including sample teaching programmes, bibliographies and policy documents.
- * ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center), a bibliographic service covering all aspects of education, with extensive abstracts and a mailing service for copies of documents (ERIC is available through several American utilities, including BRS, DIALOG, and SDC ORBIT as well as Australian STARS/CTC service).

EXAMPLES FROM SCHOOLS

1. Morawa Agricultural District High School, a country school in Western Australia. The school library is currently providing online access to Viatel for staff and students. Attempts have been made to use STARS/CTC for general information, and Elderlink for agricultural information. In addition, the school library accesses the Western Australian Department of Education DEC-10 computer in Perth for messages via DEC-mail and uses the Acadex message service on Viatel for communicating with other schools. Equipment used in the library is a Microbee with Beemodem, and a large screen for class viewing or searches.

2. St Hilda's Anglican School for Girls, in Perth, Western Australia. The school library uses ASCIS for catalogue information, ABN (Australian Bibliographic Network) for inter-library loans information, Viatel for information for computer studies classes, mathematics, science, geography, social studies, and other subject areas and SDC ORBIT and AUSINET for bibliographic searches for all school subjects, for teachers' research needs, and for information for the school executive.

3. Tasmanian Primary and Secondary Schools. The Australian Associated Press (AAP) news service is used in schools throughout the state through TASNET (the state's computer network), in social studies, classes, media education, music, art, English, and

other curriculum areas. At this stage, the AAP service is the only database in Tasmania "routinely available to students for online searches". (Herr, 1987, 146).

4. Evans High School in Sydney, New South Wales. ASCIS is used mainly for its cataloguing information. Because the school is currently automating its circulation procedures, the teacher-librarian is beginning to order ASICS records on disc for transfer to the school's own system, PROLIB. The School has been using ACIN for curriculum information for two months, particularly in the earea of student welfare. Teachers have requested ACIN searches for their own professional development.

CONCLUSION

As one policy statement for school libraries in Australia states, "advances in technology should be assimilated into the library to maintain its relevance to its users within their wider social context". (Libraries in New South Wales Government Schools, 1987, 1). Information skills programmes provide an opportunity for schools to exploit the advantages of online information services in such a way that the educational experiences of students foster independent and lifelong learning, and at the same time ensure the social relevance of those experiences.

These services provide benefits over and above the mere replication of existing manual resources and activities. They provide not only speed, accuracy, and flexibility in searching but they also give students and teachers world-wide information at their fingertips. Most importantly, they can make a contribution to the growth and development of our students. It is now up to educators, in co-operation with database developers, to work towards ensuring the appropriateness of the growing number of online services to schools.

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BOOK SELECTION IN THE SCHOOL LIBRARIES IN SMALL COUNTRIES

Ylva Lindholm-Romantschuk

The topic for my presentation is book selection in school libraries of small countries. Book selection as well as the selection of all for media and other materials in the school library is one of the most important and challenging tasks the school librarian performs. Selection in the school library has the dual purpose of enriching the curriculum and, at the same time, of serving the individual reading needs of the students. These objectives are emphasized by almost all textbooks and articles on book selection for school libraries and it is, I think, something that can be agreed on however desperate the school libraries are that we are dealing with.

A lot has been written on the subject of book selection, and more, I am sure, will be written in the future. Book selection as well as the selection of other media will probably always be one of the hot topics among librarians, one of the eternal questions that continues to fascinate the members of our profession. In this presentation I shall concentrate on books, which in my view are still to be considered the most important of the medium that we use in the school library. I don't think that any school librarian could seriously contemplate the replacement of the book collection even with exactly same information in any other form. The book continues to offer us a convenient package of information as well as experiences of all kinds. As a matter of fact there has never before been so many books published in the world as today. Book selection is therefore generally speaking more important than ever.

Another factor that makes book selection an important task today is the hardening economic situation, which in many countries has led to more restrictive funding in the school and library sector. Many school libraries are facing budget cuts directed especially towards the acquisition of new materials. At the same time book prices continue to go up. This is a significant reason why it is especially important to choose the materials wisely - it would certainly be bad economy not to do it, or at least not attempt to do it.

At this point I'd like to give you some information on where I stand when dealing with the more theoretical aspects of book selection. My frame of reference to the approach in book selection could be called sociological. I see the librarian first of all as a

member of the society she/he lives in, and very much an active member of the society. It doesn't matter if we choose to look at the society in view of a school, a community or a country. There is and must always be interaction between the librarian as an individual and the surrounding society. Book selection is never carried out in a vacuum. It is a myth that the librarian can be totally objective and perform the book selection as if she/he herself as a person didn't exist. Every librarian leaves her mark on the collections, behind every book chosen there is a person who made the decision to purchase it.

The art, or rather the science, of book selection is in my view a very complex process, more complex than we might acknowledge when we perform it as part of the daily routines in the school library. Many people are involved, a lot of money is circulated and many decisions are made in the process that starts with the book, or manuscript, being written. The book is subject to many selective choices before it reaches the reader. Siw Widerberg, a Swedish children's writer who has published about twenty children's books once called the process of getting a children's book accepted for publication, actually published and then distributed through different channels to the readers, "a damned steeplechase".

This is of course a writer's view of the matter, but as librarians we are instrumental to the process of selecting and distributing children's literature and we sometimes have to look at matters from the points of view of the other people involved in the selective process as well. I will come back to this later.

In this presentation I will discuss some of the problems and advantages one meets with in the selection of books for school libraries in small countries, where the problem of selection lies not so much in choosing the right books from an abundance of books, but rather in the lack of appropriate materials. I will, though, first touch on some more general aspects of the dissemination of children's books. Furthermore I will give a brief outline of the Scandinavian children's book market and some examples of the problems in selecting books for the school library in some of these countries. At the end of my presentation I will describe some reading promotional work that we carried out in Helsinki this year to give you some idea of what kind of work we feel is important.

There are both problems and advantages in being in the position of selecting materials in a small country compared to a big country.

Some of the problems could be summed up in the following:

- a) selection is limited because the number of titles published is small
- b) selection is very limited in certain areas of non-fiction
- c) proportionally there are a lot of translations among the titles

published.

and some of the advantages:

- a) possibility of reading or browsing the majority of the published books
- b) possibility of mastering the book market and getting to know individual publishers and authors
- c) possibility of purchasing almost everything published.

My topic is further specified by the words "in small countries". Now one should expect me to give a definition of a small country.. That would be quite difficult. Let me illustrate that by saying that for those of you who come from the United States any country with less than 100 million inhabitants might be considered small - for those of you who come from Iceland anything over half a million is probably considered big. I intend, however, to avoid the problem of defining size. Instead I will simply concentrate on the countries that I know best, and which, of course, internationally speaking are rather small - namely the Nordic or the Scandinavian countries.

The school library situation in these countries is somewhat different, though. In Denmark there is a almost ideal situation with a good system of school library media centers in almost all schools. In Norway, Sweden and Finland the situation varies somewhat from district to district, although the school legislation in all these countries sets its limits for the development of the school libraries. The worst problems are probably the lack of trained school librarians and inappropriate collections. I won't go into the situation in Iceland, as you will get many chances here at the conference to hear about that.

Some background - an approach to the problem of selection

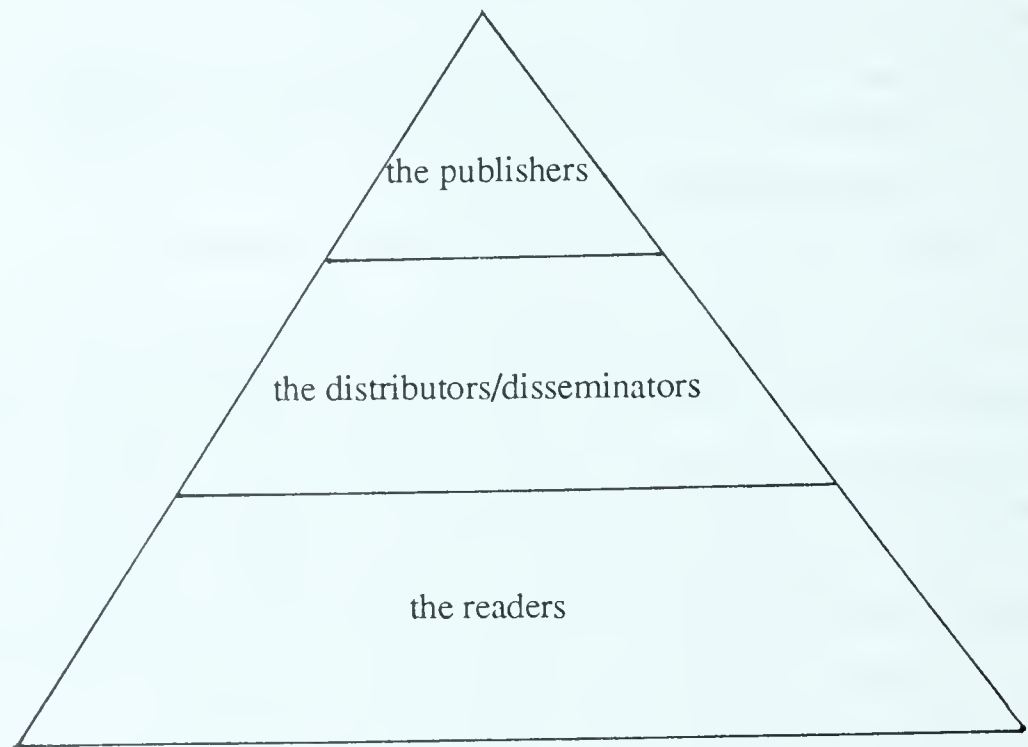
Book selection in the school library is the result of the following concurrent factors:

- the choices made by the book distributors
- the choices made by the publishers
- the expectations and demands from the society
- the expectations and demands from the school
- the qualities of the individual school librarians
- the qualities of the individual books.

The selective processes that the books go through on their way from manuscript to reader could be illustrated in two ways. If we first consider the people involved in the

process we could illustrate as in figure 1. It shows the people involved in the different stages of the process of getting the book from manuscript to reader.

Fig. 1

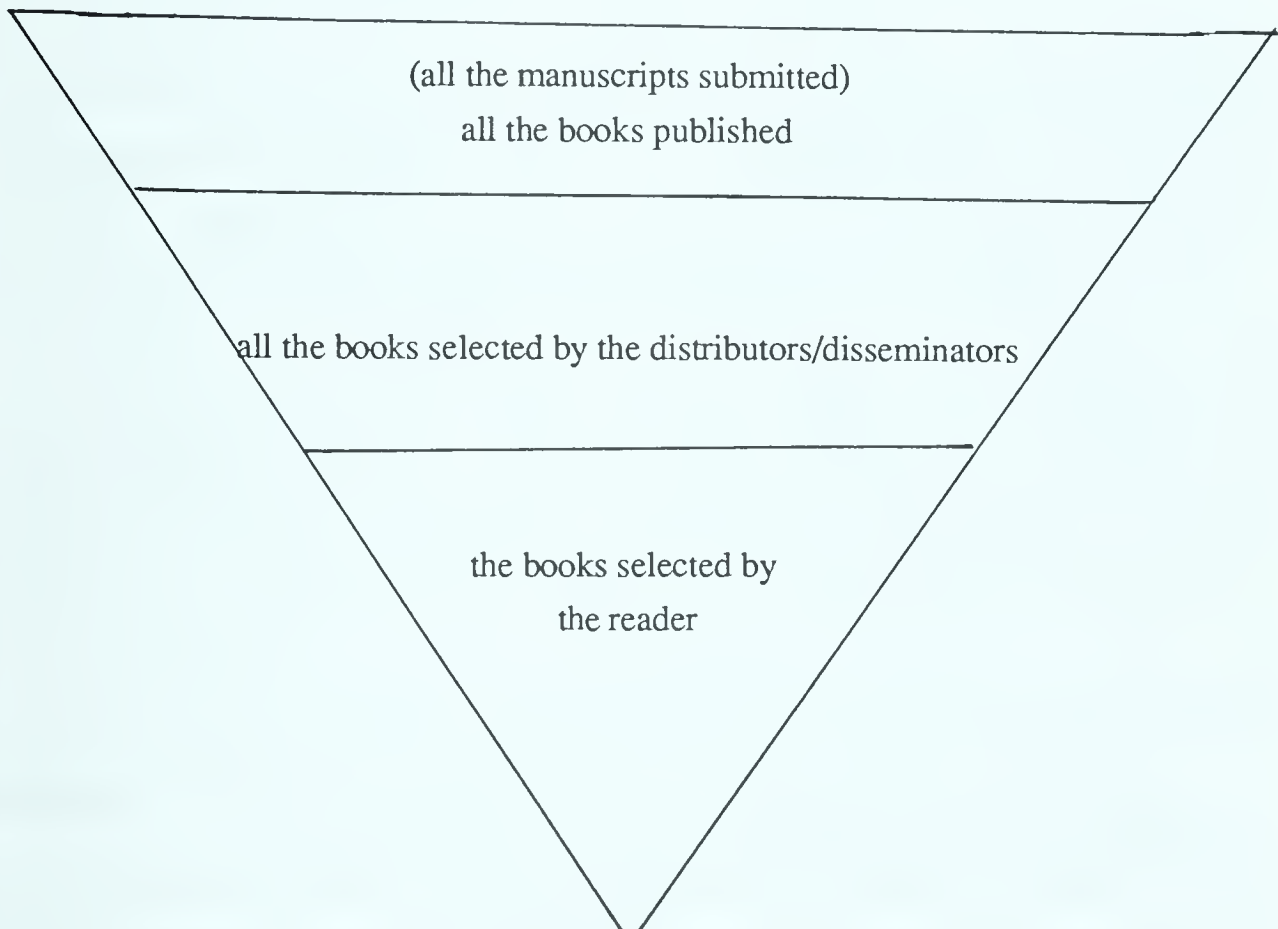


There are very few people at the top. These are the people who make the decisions about which books to publish, decisions which influence the rest of the people in the pyramid. In the middle there are more people involved, but still they are quite few. The people in the middle make the decisions about which books to bring forward. They are the people who distribute the books on all levels or those who in other ways contribute to the distribution of children's books, for instance the critics. Here we of course find the school librarians. Where children are concerned we often find parents and other members of the family in this position, as well. The readers at the bottom make up the biggest part of the system. This is in most cases a one-way system, where the readers hardly ever have any chance to influence the people at the top, the editors at the publishing houses, or even the librarians who perform the selection at the library, especially if the readers referred to are children. My point here is that there are a few who make the decisions for the many. The people involved in all of the steps of the process should give the others a lot more feedback; the distributors as well as the publishers, the librarians and the teachers as well as the parents, and most importantly of course the readers.

We can approach the selection process in another way, too, and construct a model which looks like a pyramid up-side down. It consists of the books, whereas the other figure was made up of the people dealing with the books.

Figure 2 illustrates the selection processes the books go through before they reach the readers.

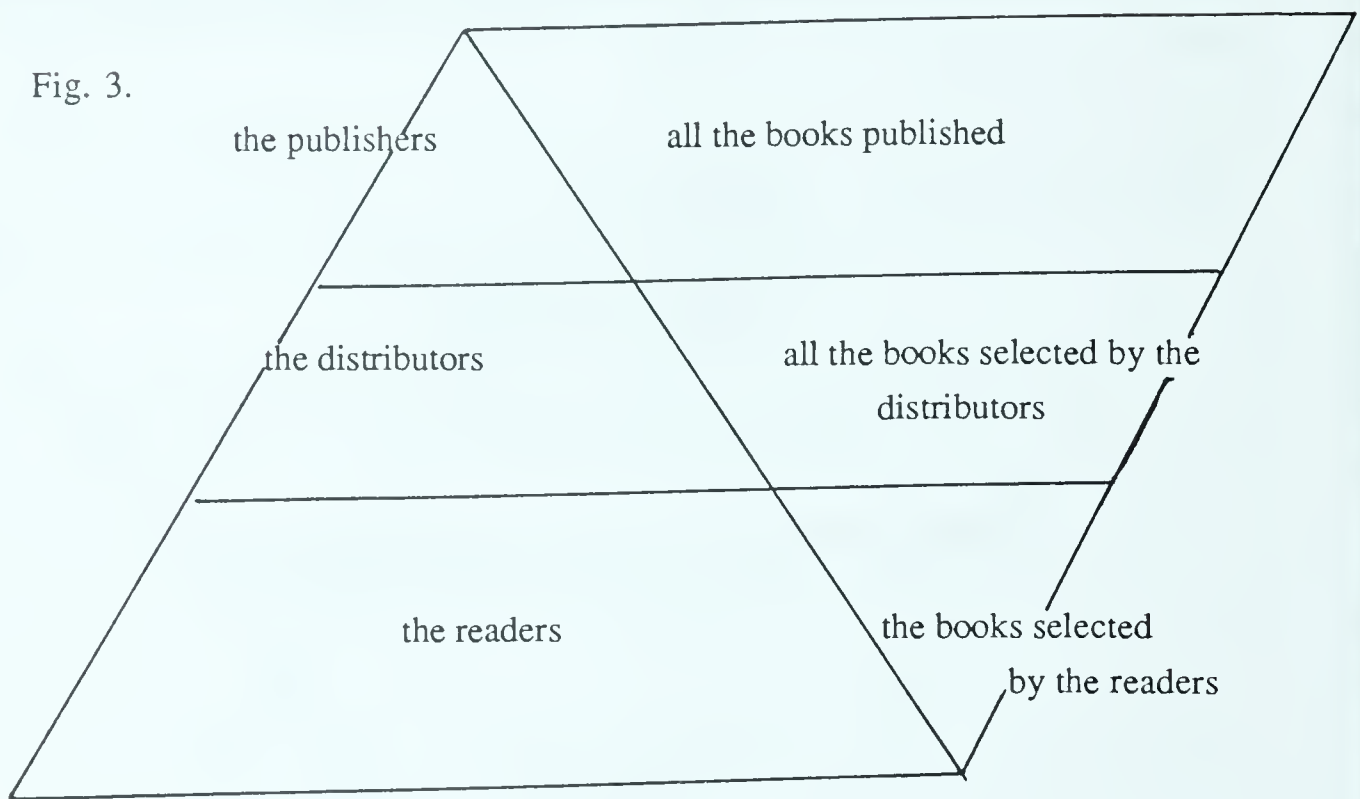
Fig. 2



The number of books is largest at the top. At a publishing house usually only a few percent of all the manuscripts submitted are actually published. The manuscripts picked out for publishing have been selected in accordance with the publisher's interests, what he thinks might sell or what he believes is good literature. The distributors also select the materials they deal with. Let us take a book shop as an example - they choose the books they sell according to some principles. Even the largest book shop can't accommodate all new books. So they have to make a choice - and their selection reflects their ideology, opinions or their commercial profiles. And naturally the same goes for the libraries. They select their books according to some selection principles. The collection reflects the purpose of the library but also the intelligence, interests and opinions of the individual librarians. The collection is always the result of choices made by people. The library purchases a limited number of titles. The selection the reader sees is only a fraction of all the books available, and an even smaller part of all the books published.

To make the whole process more evident we can actually combine the two figures

(Fig. 3). Now we can see how the selective process works.



On all levels there are people involved and choices to be made. I think this very clearly illustrates Siw Widerberg's words about the steeplechase.

The selection process is of course very important and naturally unavoidable. But the methods and principles for this need to be discussed and evaluated at all levels of distribution and there needs to be a two-way communication system among the parties involved.

The children's book market.

If we now proceed to more practical matters let's take a look at the children's book market in Scandinavia. The Scandinavian countries represent about 20 million people and every year there are about 3100 children's books published in these five countries altogether. On the average about half of these titles are originals. In Denmark about 800, in Finland about 600, in Iceland about 140, in Norway about 600 and in Sweden a little more than 900 titles reach the book market every year. (These are the official figures

taken from the national bibliographies - according to some studies there are a lot of children's books published that never reach the official statistics.) The number of copies printed varies. A new book by Astrid Lindgren will easily reach 100.000 copies sold while a debutant might have problems in selling 200 copies. The average children's book sells in a couple of thousand copies.

My point here is obvious - there isn't such a big selection of books to choose from in a small country, especially not in a country where the language spoken is limited within the country's borders. This is in practice true for all of the Scandinavian countries, with a few exceptions, e.g. the Swedish-speaking minority in Finland. Take Icelandic or even Finnish as an example Icelandic is understood and spoken by perhaps 200.000 people in the whole world - Finnish by some five million people.

A big public library purchases more or less everything published in the country. For such a library it is in most cases a question of number of copies rather than which titles to acquire. But for a school library, where the collection should meet the specific needs of the school, book selection can represent a serious problem. There simply aren't enough appropriate titles that meet the needs of the curriculum or the standards of quality that have been decided on.

And still, of course, we are in a good position compared to the developing countries, where there are practically no books at all available for the children in their own language.

When we examine the children's book market we can see that the publishers advertise some of the books in a more pronounced way than others. A new book by Astrid Lindgren or Maria Gripe of course practically sells itself, because the children as well as the librarians are all ready and waiting for it, but a book by some obscure debutant is seldom given the attention and marketing back-up it most likely deserves. The interest seems to be focused on the well-known, established authors and only very few debutants find their way to for instance the shelves of the school libraries.

Other special features in small countries

An interesting feature in a small country is that the people who have a professional interest in children's books, the writers, the publishers, the critics, the teachers and the librarians all tend to get to know each other sooner or later. People meet at seminars and conferences or at least they read each other's writings. I sometimes have a feeling that there is a sort of Invisible College or network of people whose passion is children's books.

These people write children's books, review children's books, lend them to young

people in the libraries and go to seminars and conferences to discuss the future of children's literature. In a small country you tend to see familiar names below every other review and you get to know the opinions and the style of almost all the critics. This can be an advantage but it can also lead to a situation where the existing establishment of critics and opinion leaders gets to dominate the field too much.

Another striking feature in small countries is that the collection overlap, that is the occurrence of the same titles in the collections of both school and public libraries tends to be rather high. Compared to American studies, where overlap between school and public library collections have been estimated to about 30%, the collection overlap in Helsinki, where I conducted a study this year, was estimated to about 60%. That means that the collections in school libraries and public libraries are quite similar. One reason for this is of course the small number of titles available compared to the American book market.

The problem of censorship.

The problem of censorship has not been very much in the news in Scandinavia lately, certainly not as much as in the United States. There is of course all the time an ongoing discussion of the quality of children's books among the professional people. Some feel more strongly than others the need to make choices for the children regarding their reading habits. In some municipalities there have been outright battles between the teachers and the children's librarians in the public libraries regarding the quality of the children's literature. Many teachers seem to defend more strongly the view that it doesn't matter what the children read as long as they do read, while most librarians defend the high quality standards.

This spring there was a quite unique incident in Finland, when a Finnish member of Parliament made the reading of a certain Finnish novel in the junior high schools a news item, which even reached the TV evening news. He questioned the Minister of Education of why the novel *Simpauttaja* by Heikki Turunen is required reading in the junior high schools. In his opinion it contains foul language and is not suitable for young adults. The novel is generally considered a fine piece of art and should in my opinion be included in every junior high and high school library. This particular member of Parliament is, I might add, a member of the small Christian Party. He wanted the book to be withdrawn from all lists of recommended reading. Of course he did not succeed in that, but for one brief moment the reading habits of young people and the books they are required to read at school was something people talked about.

Only some fifteen years ago in Norway there was a list issued every year by a government agency that contained about one hundred titles. Those titles the school

libraries were permitted to purchase. This method of course simplified the process of selection but didn't give the individual school librarian very much freedom of choice. It is almost tempting to call it censorship. Today the list contains about 350 titles, more than half of the children's books published in Norway.

How to get the books - purchasing channels

In all the Scandinavian countries there is a central agency that acts as distributor of materials to libraries, one could almost say there is a monopoly in the distribution of books to public and school libraries. If we again take Sweden as an example there is a central agency called Bibliotekstjänst (Library Service), which distributes books in library binding. It also offers a reviewing service, which, however, over the years has been the target of some strong criticism. Up to 1970 The Library Service offered only selected titles chosen by high quality standards. Today they review everything that the publishers send to them and offer almost all titles published in Sweden. Competing agencies have, however, been set up, which in my opinion is very good. It forces all parties to improve the quality of their service.

In Finland most of the school libraries buy the books through the local books shop. This means they have a smaller selection to choose from than if they should use other channels. On the other hand they get to see the books before they buy them, which is a great advantage. But they are dependent on a selection of books already picked out by somebody else, namely the book shop employees. It is of course possible to order any book by mail.

The school librarians do naturally use other means of getting information about new books as well. In an ideal situation a school librarian should be able to consider every aspect to all new books before reaching the decision of purchasing. The ideal situation unfortunately seldom exists outside the textbooks.

Some examples of the traditional tools that are used in the books selection are:

The publishers' catalogues. Only the big publishing houses can afford to publish catalogues of their own. Very few of the small publishing houses or those who publish only a small number of children's books have regular catalogues for the children's literature. Most of them use other advertising methods or joint catalogues.

Book reviews in the newspapers. They are rare and often superficial. The newspaper editors don't seem to think that children's literature is worth writing about

(this is probably a world-wide problem), and if you can make them publish critique of children's books you should preferably manage to review at least five children's books in the same space they usually allow for one adult books. It was a rare event when one of our children's writers, Irmelin Sandman Lilius, last fall published a critique of the outstanding Australian children's novel *Amy's eyes* by Richard Kennedy and was allowed half a newspaper page for the review in one of the daily newspapers in Finland.

Book reviews in the professional journals. The problem is that we don't have many journals in the field of children's literature or children's librarianship that are published with such regularity that you could use them as a tool for the books selection. Of course the ones that exist are read and used by the librarians. They usually don't have a regular reviewing service, though, but pick out a few good books or authors they give a more in-depth treatment.

Lists of recommended books. The problem with lists of recommended books is that they lose their value as book selection tools quite fast. It has been shown that books disappear from the book market as quickly as in two years from publishing. If they aren't sold during the yearly book sale they may actually be destroyed. Popular children's books are reprinted, but the more odd titles can be very hard to get two or three years after publication. Some years ago there was great worry among librarians in Finland that many of the classics were unavailable at the book market. A questionnaire was sent out to the librarians and a list of the most wanted books was later delivered to the publishers.

The reviewing service offered by the central agencies and the local book shop have already been discussed above.

There are many methods and channels through which by which one can get information about new books. One problem is, though, that it takes a lot of time and effort to do it and time is something the school librarians do not have.

The problem of translations

Small countries are often highly dependent on translations of books from foreign languages. In the Nordic countries only about half of the published children's books are originals. This is both a richness and a problem. We get to know different cultures

through the children's literature, and hopefully that helps in building a society with less racism and prejudice, and enables us to widen our perspective.

But there are problems, too

First of all good translations aren't always that easy to come by, and children's literature is not yet considered to be "real" literature even by all publishers one can still sometimes encounter the most unprofessional translations. This is especially true of the massproduced, cheap products that are sold in kiosks and department stores.

Secondly, the topics described in the translated books can be unfamiliar for the children who read them. Cultural differences need not be any problem and we of course should learn a lot more about other countries to be able to work against prejudice, but I feel that children in small countries whose own culture is represented by very few people need to be able to read about their own reality in their own children's literature.

Thirdly, even if quite a few languages are represented, more than half of the titles were translated from English originals. And I'm sorry to say they are not always the books that won the Newberry Medal or the Children's Book of the Year Award.

The publishing of non-fiction for children

The publishing of non-fiction for children is quite an interesting topic. It is of special interest to school libraries, as we continuously have to find books that supplement and enrich the curriculum. I shall therefore take non-fiction as an example to give you some comprehension of the situation for the school libraries in small countries.

Let us first take a look at some figures regarding the publication of non-fiction. I have chosen to show you some figures from Sweden, which of the Nordic countries publishes the biggest number of new titles for children every year. In table 1 you will find the numbers that show how many non-fiction titles were published during the last ten year-period. I have classified them using the Dewey Decimal Classification.

Table 1. Total number of non-fiction titles for children published in Sweden during the years 1977-1986.

Dewey Decimal Classification	Number of non-fiction titles for children published 1977-1986
000 Generalities	15
100 Philosophy	6
200 Religion	164
300 Social sciences	60
400 Languages	20
500 Pure sciences	324
600 Technology (applied sciences)	89
700 The arts	91
900 Geography & History	<u>149</u>
	Total 918

During the ten years from 1977 to 1986 a little more than 900 non-fiction books for children were published in Sweden. That averages about 90 a year. Roughly ten to twenty percent of these were not suitable for school libraries, either because they were directed at a younger audience or because of the low quality of the books.

That leaves us seventy to eighty titles a year, which isn't much of a selection to choose from. There are usually only a couple of titles available in certain fields. If we examine the non-fiction books in the class of the 500's, which contains the largest number of titles published during the last ten years, more than 320, we find that about 30% or more than one hundred titles deal with one specific subject: animals. There is a large number of books on birds, spiders, elephants, bears, wolves, tigers, and rats, and even one about wood-louse. One might question the need for having ten different books about the wild animals in Africa and other exotic things while we are lacking the most basic books about more relevant subjects. There seems to be a discrepancy between the actual need in the schools and the libraries and the commercial interests that guide the publishers. This reflects the one-way communication that I was talking about before.

Some examples of subject areas where we lack appropriate non-fiction books for children are:

- geography: books about foreign countries

- biography: books about significant people both in our own history and abroad.
- social science: books about how people live and work in their daily lives, also books on different professions and ways of life.

More general requirements would be that the non-fiction books for children deal with the themes and subjects in a less superficial way than they usually do, that they show respect for the child and that they use suitable language. Research in Finland has shown that the textbooks, used in the Finnish schools use far too abstract language, contains too many difficult words and concepts and that few of the pupils in the third and sixth grades, that were studied, understood the texts they were reading on a deeper level. This leaves a great responsibility to the school library. We should be able to offer good alternatives by using the books from the school library.

Studies in both Norway, Sweden and Finland have shown that one of the biggest problems with the school library collections today is that a great part of them is out-of-date. It is of course quite understandable that a school librarian doesn't want to weed the collection of non-fiction books too thoroughly, when she/he knows that there wouldn't be anything left if she went by the rules and that there really are no newer books available on the subject. I feel that we should try to influence the publishers in this respect and try to communicate the needs of the schools and school libraries to them more strongly.

There seems, however, to be a trend towards the publishing of more non-fiction for children. Series containing several items on different topics in look-alike editions have always been popular, at least with the publishers, and they are growing more popular by the month. These series are often translated from foreign languages and published simultaneously in many countries. They tend, however, to represent to a problem for the school libraries. One can never be sure that all the items in a given series are of equal standard. Trying to write about different topics on exactly the same amount of pages seems to force the author or the editor to push himself a little bit too much. Of course there are series that are edited in a professional way and translated and transformed to match the conditions and the culture in the country and the language they are to be published in. but we certainly have to watch out for bad translations and editions all the time.

A study conducted in Sweden in the beginning of the eighties does not give a very bright picture of the situation in nonfiction books for children. The researchers found that many of the non-fiction books are of inferior quality. Technically they are of pretty good standard but when their content was analyzed it was found that the following features

were common to many of the non-fiction books, especially the books translated from foreign languages:

- national characteristics are toned down, which leads to a distorted picture of reality (my favourite example of this is the picture book that is directed at an audience both in Britain and the rest of Europe and therefore has to picture the cars with the driver somewhere in the middle).
- the books give a too idyllic picture of reality and are prejudiced.
- the pictures are too abstract or difficult to interpret, alternatively the artists employ techniques that are more often used in the advertising world than in children's books.
- the presentation of facts concentrates on details, which leads to fragmentation.
- no empathy or feeling is involved.

Book prices

If we examine the book prices we find that they are comparatively high. The price for a hard cover children's book today is in the range S13 to S18. Some of the more exclusive books can go up to S40-S50. Non-fiction is usually more expensive than fiction. The reason for the high prices is partly the small number of books printed, but partly also the state tax, which for example in Finland is 16% on books. Writers, publishers and librarians have for years tried to influence the state administration to abolish taxes on books, with no success so far.

Obviously the multinational products, the books that are printed simultaneously in many countries, are much cheaper. It can be a difficult choice for a school librarian sometimes when she knows that she would get quite a few more books if she bought lower quality. According to a study I conducted in the school libraries in Helsinki the average school librarian tends to buy books of lower quality than one would hope for. This can probably partly be explained by the fact that they have restricted funds. Of course there are other explaining factors, too, such as the comparatively small selections available and the problems connected with the whole school situation (for instance little time available for the book selection and the lack of appropriate library training among the school librarians).

Pocket books, however, are less expensive. In Sweden the state has for ten years financially supported the publication of very cheap quality pocket books for adults as well as for children. The series is called *En bok för alla* - A Book for Everybody. The series for children consists of new editions of children's classics or newer children's books and the price per book is about S2-3. There are twenty new titles issued for children and

young adults every year. The picture books in this series are hard cover books and technically of very good quality as well. These books are very popular with the children - and with the parents, because of the price. In school libraries they are used quite a lot. They are very handy for use for instance in all kinds of reading promotional work in the school library. You can always trust the quality is high despite the low price.

Library Week in Helsinki 1987 - example of reading promotional work

As any library surrounding the task of the school librarian is to actively promote the utilization of the collections. It is certainly not enough to have collections of high standards, even if I personally feel that it is a prerequisite for any school library work of significance. A bad collection can never be substituted by other efforts, but even a good collection needs promotion. I see reading promotion as one of the most inspiring tasks in the school library. It is of course interconnected with the book selection in that you need a collection of inspiring, adventurous, imaginative books that will help the children to understand themselves and the world around them better through the world of literature.

In Helsinki we used books from the Swedish state-supported series this year during Library Week in the Swedish-speaking schools. Every pupil in the first, sixth and seventh grade received a book from this series as a gift from the school library.

During Library Week we also wanted to promote a number of good fiction books. The children in Finland as well as children in most other western countries live in a society where they in their daily lives encounter a lot of massproduced products of questionable value, everything from comics to TV programs. We wanted to show that children's books can offer an exciting alternative.

We designed three different handouts to be given to every child in the grades one through nine, one for the grades one through three, one for the grades four through six and one for the grades seven through nine. The handouts were bi-lingual - Finnish and Swedish - and were printed in altogether more than 40.000 copies and distributed to all pupils during Library Week. The school libraries of course had stacked up on these titles and were ready to arrange book talks, visits by children's writers and other activities.

We wanted to concentrate on a few, good books. It was hard work to pick out the ones we liked best. The members of the School Library Committee as well as a number of children read a lot of fine books before deciding on those that were included in the lists.

Some of the criterions for the selcection were the following:

We wanted to include a number of authors that most likely were unknown to the majority of the children. You don't, with one or two exceptions, find any of the obvious choices or children's classics in our lists.

For the younger children we wanted to include a good selection of picture books, more than you usually find in lists of recommended reading of this kind. We believe that a picture book is a work of art, where the pictures have to be of equally high quality as the text, perhaps even more so, because children are confronted with so much picture material of low artistic quality today that they need good alternatives.

We wanted a good selection of translations of books written by authors from different parts of the world or books dealing with topics of current interest.

A pre-requisite for the titles included was high quality in language and pictures.

One example of our selection could be Selina Hastings version of the Arthur-legend illustrated by Juan Wijngard. It is a perfectly lovely book which continues to fascinate children (and adults, too). The atmosphere in the illustrations is mystical and inspiring and takes you right back to the Middle Age. At the same time the message or theme is very up-to-date.

Another fine book is *Talking Earth* by the American author Jean Craighead George, which tells about an Indian girl in the Everglades in Florida. She doesn't believe in the old mythology of her tribe until she is forced to spend some time alone in the wilderness and learns to listen to nature.

Other names I'd like to mention are Lygia Bojunga Nunes from Brazil, James Watson and Larry Bogard from the United States, Margaret Mahy from New Zealand, Aase Foss Abrahamsen from Norway, Marja-Leena Mikkola and Kaarina Helakisa from Finland, Annika Holm and Viveca Sundvall from Sweden.

The Library Week activities proved to be a success. When we afterwards evaluated the activities we could conclude that we had reached both the children, and teachers and the parents with the project. Even if it is the daily work in the school library and the class room that really makes the difference I think we need to put some more effort into this kind of activities and from time to time just enjoy ourselves with good children's literature.

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SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOL LIBRARIES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS TODAY RESULTS OF AN INDEPTH SURVEY (1982-1986)

Prof. dr. Pierre G.J. Overduin.

1. AIM OF THE SURVEY

In recent years the role of the school library in education has received renewed interest. The research projects of the British Library deserve special mention: Winkworth, F.V. User education in schools (1977); Irving, A. and Snape, W.H. Educating library users in secondary schools (1979); Brake, T. The need to know: Teaching the importance of information (1980) and (in conjunction with the Schools Council) Marland M. ed. Information skills in the secondary curriculum (1981), and the Report of the Library and Information Services Council's Working Party on School Library Services of the Office of Arts and Libraries: School libraries: The foundations of the curriculum (1984). They focus the attention on the importance of teaching and learning methods which prepare the individual for the changing pace and demands of his world. The knowledge explosion and rapid developments in communication technology demand that the individual should be able to cope with information in order to control his social, academic and professional environment.

In the light of this it is of vital importance that a comprehensive collection of information media should be available in the school library, supplemented with appropriate outside information media and services (e.g. musea, art galleries, the environment, etc.), and that their educational utilisation by pupils and teachers should be planned and coordinated.

After the Second World War the different education departments in South Africa started (some earlier, some later) to move towards the provision of school libraries. Centralised school library services, school library premises, staff and collections were established. Several articles have shown, however, that curricular media use has still not developed satisfactorily. University staff question the effectiveness of library guidance

and use in schools because a great number of first year students have very little knowledge of the library and the use of information sources. Under these circumstances this research project was initiated with the following aims:

- * to evaluate the present situation of school library provision and use in the secondary schools of the respective education departments of the Republic of South Africa, objectively and critically
- * to identify problem areas and deficiencies and
- * to suggest possible solutions.

This survey would have no merit if no basic facilities and some measure of media use in schools did not already exist. The survey proves and recognises that substantial progress has been made over the past decades.

Recommendations based on the survey may enable every South African child to develop into a citizen equipped to cope with the responsibilities of the twenty first century. We trust that the authorities will take cognisance of the contents of the report and that the conclusions and recommendations will prove helpful in the future planning of education in their schools.

2. SOUTH AFRICAN BACKGROUND

2.1. Country and population

South Africa is situated in the Southern part of Africa and covers ± 1 mill. km² and is 5 times the size of the U.K. The present population consists of

- ± 20 million Blacks
- ± 5 million Whites
- ± 3 million Coloureds
- ± 1 million Asians.

The official languages are English and Afrikaans (derived from the Dutch language), further there are ± 8 different indigenous languages spoken by the Blacks.

2.2. Education

According to the R.S.A. Constitution of 1983 state matters are referred to as 'own' or 'general' affairs.

"14 own affairs : Matters which specially or differentially affect a population group in relation to the maintenance of its identity and the upholding and furtherance of its way of life, culture, traditions and customs are... own affairs in relation to such a population group.

15 general affairs - Matters which are not own affairs of a population group in terms of section 14 are general affairs." (R.S.A. Constitution Act, No. 110 of 1983).

Education is indicated as an own affair, which means that separate education departments exist for the four population groups. There is however also a central education department which lays down the national education policy for all the schools in the country, e.g.

- (a) norms and standards for the financing of running and capital costs of education for all population groups;
- (b) salaries and conditions of employment of staff;
- (c) the professional registration of teachers;
- (d) norms and standards for syllabuses and examination, and for certification of qualifications, within the framework of the following principles:
 - (i) That equal opportunities for education, including equal standards of education, shall be strived after for every inhabitant of the Republic irrespective of race, colour, creed or sex;
 - (ii) that recognition shall be granted both to that which is common and to that which is diverse in the religious and cultural way of life of the inhabitants of the Republic, and to their languages...(Appendix 1)

There is still a disparity in the per capita expenditure among pupils of different race groups, however, the Government has committed itself to obtain parity as soon as economically viable. In 1985 the per capita expenditure was as follows:

White pupils	R1184 (2R = \pm 1 \$)
Asian pupils	R 999
Coloured pupils	R 651
Black pupils	R 213

One must however keep in mind that: about 78% of the black teachers have lesser qualifications than the white teachers (this means lower salaries); the majority of black pupils are in the primary school which is less expensive. (At present the primary to secondary school enrolment ratio in White education is about 50-50, while in Black

education it is 82, 5-17,5).

3. TERMINOLOGY

Different terms are used in South Africa in the field of school librarianship. In this report the more commonly used term 'school library' is used to indicate the scope of teaching and learning media available to teachers and pupils for educational purposes.

4. METHODOLOGY

4.1 School library policy

The survey started with a study of the school library policy of the seven education departments.

It is considered essential that departments should have a clearly defined school library policy as a starting point for school library use. Such a policy has been formulated in the departments of the OFS, Transvaal, Natal and Indian education. It is, however, apparent that this policy is not always followed through to teaching practice, as can be deduced from the following observations:

- * Few subject syllabuses supply specific guidelines with regard to current media use.
- * Subject inspectors generally do not promote curricular media use sufficiently in subject teaching.
- * Curricular media is not promoted sufficiently in teacher training.

As there are no definite guidelines for a school library programme which supports the official policy, teacher-librarians apply their own initiative, knowledge and experience in the interpretation and implementation of the policy.

Example of departmental school library policy (Indian)

"The aim of the school library is inextricably bound with that of the general educational programme. The operational objective of the school library is to facilitate, assist and expedite the achievement of optimum education by each student by providing an enriching and vitalizing programme".

4.2 Analysis of subject syllabuses

This was followed by an analysis of all subject syllabuses for secondary

schools to determine to what extent subject teachers are expected to integrate the school library/media in their teaching.

Syllabuses in which reference is made to the use of the school library and/or media are:

Black	87%
Natal	87%
Indian	86%
Coloured	80%
Cape Province	72%
Transvaal	71%
OFS	65%

These percentages are fairly high but it must be remembered that references appear mostly in the aims and are often vague and general without definite guidelines on how these aims should be realised. These are mostly cursory references and their implementation depends on individual interpretation. As a result the majority of subject teachers follow the traditional method of instruction according to the textbook and consider the use of other media only as 'enrichment' of the syllabus. In spite of the fact that assignments are recommended in a fair number of syllabuses, training in the application of correct study methods receives very little attention.

As is apparent from the chapters on the respective departments some syllabuses emphasize the use of media as an essential part of classroom instruction. The most significant recommendations with regard to the school library, use of media and self-activity occur in the syllabuses for language (especially English and Afrikaans), human sciences (especially History and Geography) and the arts. During interviews it was apparent that subject teachers were influenced positively in those departments where syllabuses made pertinent reference to curricular media use.

Examples:

English (Home language) (Transvaal)

"It is expected that the library will be a focal point in the teaching of English. To achieve this, the pupil should be taught how to use the library, and should be guided in the selection of books and in the use of reference material."

Geography (Indian)

"Pupils must be encouraged to make intelligent use not only of their textbooks and

atlases, but of as many other reference sources as can be obtained by their own efforts and those of the school library."

History (Black)

"Methods which foster individual study should be adopted. To this end pupils should have access to a suitable reference library, should have the benefit of guidance whilst gathering material for an assignment and should have assistance in arranging the data for a specific purpose."

We are convinced that explicit requirements in each syllabus will result in effective curricular media use. If this is not the case the existence of school libraries hardly seem justifiable, especially in the current restrictive economic climate.

4.3 Questionnaires and visits

With the approval of the education departments, questionnaires were then sent to all secondary schools in the RSA to obtain information regarding school library services, staff, accommodation, collections, organisation and use (Appendix 2).

The responses to the questionnaires must be considered when interpreting the available data. These percentages are the following:

Transvaal	93%
Natal	91%
OFS	88%
Cape Province	85%
Indian	84%
Coloured	61%
Black	54%

These percentages indicate that the responses were representative of most departments and give a true reflection of the current situation. It should, however, be borne in mind that the situation reflected in Black schools and to a lesser extent in Coloured schools, would probably have been different had 80%+ responses been received, as was the case in the other departments. The low response of these two departments may possibly be attributed to the fact that little information could be reported in the questionnaires. Some schools indicated in the questionnaires that they had no library facilities. As a result it may be assumed that the situation in the average school library in these two departments is less favourable than that reflected by the data received

in the questionnaires. This qualification must also be taken into account when interpreting the available data.

To ensure that the data concerning the official policy and provision were correct the different education departments were consulted continuously and a questionnaire was drafted and sent to the centralised school library services and/or advisers (Appendix 3).

In collaboration with the school library services ten schools which were considered to have comparatively good library services in that department were selected and visited. In interviews with the principal, the teacher-librarian and some teachers (± 3) further information with regard to facilities and curricular media use were elicited. Some of the data thus obtained have a direct bearing on the schools concerned; while other data indicate general trends (Appendix 4). At the schools visited the opinions of a std. 6 or 7 class and a std. 8 or 9 class regarding school library use were tested by means of a questionnaire (Appendix 5).

4.3.1 School library set-up

The survey proves that an effective and active centralised education library service, providing the necessary initiative, professional advice and supporting services, is prerequisite to effective school libraries. It also establishes that lack of cooperation among the library services of the respective education departments results in unnecessary duplication of services rendered.

The survey indicates that better cooperation would be especially advantageous in the following fields:

- * selection of material with a view to more frequent publication of book lists while employing fewer selectors
- * centralized cataloguing
- * media production which meets the demands of South African pupils and syllabuses
- * demonstration projects for the different levels of school library development so that teacher-librarians may attend programmes according to their needs. Not all the schools in a particular department operate at a beginner's or more advanced level.

The Transvaal Education Department is the only Department in the country which has a centralised Education Media Service which coordinates all library and audiovisual services. Natal started with a similar service in 1985. In Cape Province there

are two separate services, viz: the Education library Service and the Centre for Educational Technology. Other departments have no such centralized services and school library services are administered by one or more subject advisers. In the Orange Free State the Provincial Library Service is responsible for the provision of books. A separate division of the Department of Education and Training provides Black schools with books.

4.3.2 School library staff

The implementation of an effective school library programme is only possible with sufficient and adequately trained staff who are experienced in teaching and school library management and who are enthusiastic about their work. Great demands are made on school library staff in the information environment of the school, especially with regard to the new technology. The shortage of fulltime teacher- librarian posts in almost all departments presents a very real problem in the field of South African school librarianship.

Fulltime teacher-librarian posts.

Transvaal	94%
Indian	88%
Natal	61%
Cape Province	42%
OFS	42%
Coloured	38%
Black	23%

In general the qualifications for teacher-librarians hardly seem adequate. Only a small percentage of teacher-librarians are in possession of a teaching as well as a (school) library qualifications.

Teacher-librarians with dual qualifications

Indian	66%
Cape Province	43%
Transvaal	43%
OFS	36%
Natal	34%
Coloured	23%
Black	27%

Orientation courses for teacher-librarians are offered by some departments, especially as a large percentage of teacher-librarians have received no formal training in school library management.

In a limited number of schools teacher-librarians receive professional and/or clerical assistance. At schools where such assistance is proffered it is usually very limited. As a result teacher-librarians often have to devote time and energy to routine tasks such as processing instead of the curricular aspects of school library work, which generally do not receive enough attention in South Africa.

School library associations can play an important role in promoting cooperation among teacher-librarians and creating greater professionalism, as has been proved by such associations in the OFS and the Transvaal.

It appears strange that, in comparison with other countries there is no South African School Library Association. This can be regarded as a deficiency in the school library situation.

4.3.3. School library accomodation

Adequate accomodation is essential for the varied activities of effective media use. The latest available data indicate the following floor-space supplied for library purposes in the respective departments.

Natal	280 m ²	
Transvaal	265 m ²	(450 + pupils)
Cape Province	218 m ²	(350 + pupils)
Black	200 m ²	
Indian	195 m ²	
OFS	187 m ²	(600 + pupils)
Coloured	70 m ²	

In actual practice the size of school library premises in most schools however does not comply with the latest specification.

The percentage of schools which have basic library premises vary from 80 to 98% in the respective departments. It should however be remembered that there is a tremendous shortage of classrooms in some departments, resulting in the library being used as a classroom so that it is not available for library purposes.

Average seating capacity in school libraries

	-20	20-40	40+
OFS	12%	71%	17%
Transvaal	1%	72%	27%
Natal	3%	30%	67%
CapeProvince	4%	86%	9%
Indian	1%	57%	42%
Coloured	3%	84%	4%
Black	10%	41%	30%

With the exception of schools in Transvaal and Natal, facilities for the production of software are still very limited.

4.3.4 School library stock

A balanced school library collection, consisting of books and audiovisual material, which complies with educationally sound qualitative and quantitative standards, is essential for school library services to be rendered. It should provide for all the curricular and extra-curricular media needs of the school. It is important that the collection should be regularly weeded and supplemented to ensure that the material is relevant to the curriculum and the interests of the pupils.

The annual allocation for the purchase of books, as well as the provision of funds for purchasing audiovisual material, varies considerably in the respective departments.

The amounts spent on collection development in a specific year, on average per school, were as follows: Dept.funds Own funds

Indian	R 3817	R 398
Natal	R 1870	R 530
Transvaal	R 802	R 953
Coloured	R 1098	R 55
CapeProvince	R 680	R 310
Black	- *	R 170
OFS	- *	R 67

* Books are supplied centrally

Average number of books per pupil

Natal	12,8
OFS	10,4
Cape Province	10,3
Transvaal	8,9
Indian	5,5
Coloured	2,5
Black	2,4

Average number of periodicals per school

Transvaal	35
Natal	31
Indian	23
OFS	20
Coloured	11
Cape Province	10
Black	8

The only departments where schools seem to possess considerable collections of software and hardware are Natal and Transvaal and to a lesser extent the Cape Province. Even basic hardware seem to be lacking in other departments. In some departments a start has been made with the production of software. At this stage quantity rather than quality is emphasized in most of these schools.

4.3.5 School library organisation

The school library collection cannot be used effectively if it is not efficiently organized. Most of the teacher-librarians reported that the books stock was 'efficiently' organized in their schools. 'Efficiently' should however, be regarded as satisfactory for the established use which is at present limited (i.e. the nature as well as the scope of media use) and does not require a high standard of organisation. Many schools have not yet started organising their software collections because of limited availability.

According to the loan statistics the average number of books issued per pupil in a specific year is:

Natal	16
India	13
Cape Province	10
OFS	10
Transvaal	5
Coloured	4
Black	1

In evaluating these figures it should be taken into account that non-fiction books which are used for assignments are often used in the school library and do not appear in the loan statistics. This applies especially to schools in Transvaal where curricular media use is strongly emphasized. In Natal schools, reading guidance receives more emphasis.

4.3.6. Use of the school library

Library hours

It appears from the survey that a considerable number of school libraries are only available for curricular media use for limited periods during the school day principally as a result of Book Education lessons in the library, especially in those departments where formal Book Education lessons are offered from stds. 6 to 10, and also when the school library is used as a classroom because of a shortage of classrooms. At schools where a part-time teacher-librarian is in charge of the library, the library is usually only available when the teacher-librarian is on duty. The limited availability of the library facilities and collections available to pupils and teachers after school hours is disconcerting. It could perhaps be attributed to the amount of time spent on extra-mural activities and the fact that pupils often live far from school. On the other hand subject teaching often does not motivate pupils to use the library.

Book education

Formal Book Education is taught in most primary schools and in stds 6 and 7 of the secondary schools in South Africa. As few subject teachers afford pupils the opportunity of practising library skills, e.g. making summaries and bibliographies, senior pupils tend to lose these skills. It was found that the teaching of Book Education is usually too formal and theoretical. The biggest limiting factor in most schools is that Book Education

seems to be irrelevant or only slightly relevant to the specific needs of subject teaching which requires skills to be applied and practised the point when they are required by the syllabus. As a result pupils are not interested in research strategies and information retrieval.

Curricular media use

The continuous educational use of the school library justifies its existence. Important factors which play a role in promoting the use of the library are the general educational policy, as reflected in the syllabuses, the attitude of the headmaster, imaginative service rendered by the teacher-librarian, the extent to which subject teachers use media in their instruction and the extent to which pupils have mastered and can apply study skills.

The survey reveals that the extent of curricular media use in schools varies greatly in the different departments and also in schools of a department. Curricular media use is promoted in departments where regular in-service courses for headmasters, teacher-librarians and subject teachers are organised. School libraries are well used at schools where the headmaster actively promotes media use and an enthusiastic and ardent teacher-librarian exploits the full educational potential of the school library. An important factor contributing to the underuse of media and the school library is the fact that a large number of teachers are not motivated to use media, possibly as a result of deficiencies in the formal training and in-service training of teachers, as well as the absence of clear guidelines in the syllabuses. Most of the teachers today have not been trained to use software and hardware; consequently they use these media in a very limited way in classroom teaching.

Even those teachers who promote curricular media use, consider it an 'add-on' activity, enrichment of the syllabus and not an integral part of it. Teachers (and pupils) use a period in the library for a special assignment/project, after which they return to the 'normal' way of operating. During interviews teachers often maintained that the 'syllabus' and examination requirements prevented them from finding time for 'library work'. It is clear that they consider the 'syllabus' and 'library work' as two entirely different areas of work.

Teachers also indicated that examiners require facts from the text book and do not acknowledge insight gained from background reading. In most departments subject inspectors do not sufficiently promote curricular media use. As a result subject teachers fail to understand the purposes of a school library within the present textbook-and examination-orientated teaching environment. It is therefore not surprising that, in all the departments, the facilities of the library are most often used in History, as an assignment

is part of the matriculation examination in most of the departments.

4.3.7 General trends

The survey established the following general trends:

- * The South African education authorities recognise the need for school libraries and have already expended considerable sums of money for this purpose.
- * The education policy with regard to school libraries is, however, generally vague and is also not clearly defined in subject syllabuses.
- * The infra-structure provided by the respective education departments varies.
- * The average quantitative provision varies among the respective education departments, but is seldom 'adequate' for extensive use.
- * Although the survey was mostly concerned with quantitative data, it appeared that on average the quality of facilities also varies among the respective departments and is also still 'inadequate'.
- * It was not always possible to quantify the use made of facilities, however, it appears that school libraries in South Africa are still underused to a varying degree.

5. REPORT

The Report (School librarianship in South Africa: a critical evaluation - secondary education) which consists of 874 p. has been published on a limited scale by the Department of Library and Information Science of the University of the Orange Free State (P.O. Box 339, Bloemfontein 8300).

The chapters with regard to the respective departments are written in the language (English or Afrikaans) used by most of the schools in that department. The introduction and general recommendations (first and last chapters appear in both languages)

6. BYPRODUCTS OF THE RESEARCH

As byproducts of the Research two post graduate students have undertaken the following studies in South African School librarianship:

Mr. P. B. van Zyl has nearly finished compiling an Index to South African School

Media Centre Literature (ISAS). This Index will consist of titles of relevant monographs and periodical articles which will be selected from a list of approximately 40 South African periodicals and other serial publications in the field of education and librarianship. All items on school librarianship and the use of media in primary and secondary education in South Africa, which have appeared from 1910-1980, will be included. As from 1981 the Index will be continued on a current basis. The contents will be indexed according to a specially designed thesaurus. The index should be an important aid to researchers in this field.

Another byproducts of the research project is a doctoral dissertation by Mrs. W. M. Vermeulen. She has made a comparative study of school library standards in various countries with a view to formulating a model for the South African situation, based on data of the research report. Such standards should have a positive effect on South African school libraries, as was the case, e.g. in the U.S.A. She has completed this study recently.

7. CONCLUSION

The survey has proved that there has been progress in school librarianship in all education departments of the Republic of South Africa. Deficiencies with regard to school library facilities and use has been found in all departments. The level of school library facilities and use varies from department to department. It is important that all pupils in the Republic should have equal opportunities.

We trust that the survey has succeeded in portraying an accurate image of the South African school library situation in secondary schools in the first half of the eighties.



THE USE OF SCHOOL LIBRARY IN INTER-DISCIPLINARY PROJECT WORK

Astrid Sandvik

What do we mean with "inter-disciplinary project work" and why is it used in schools? To me inter-disciplinary project work is a way to acquire knowledge and to produce a product.

My primary concern is how we can help school children to take responsibility for their own learning. How can they "learn to how to learn" in school?

The library is one place where students of all ages have an excellent opportunity to seek knowledge, outside the textbook and as an important supplement to the teachers' lectures.

When I first started to look into the possibilities for school children to make an active use of the library, there were two circumstances that drew my attention:

- . the state of school libraries
- . the use of inter-disciplinary project work.

Neither of them were in the "shape" I had expected. It was probably naive to think that the school had changed since my time. Until recently, I had neither been working in a school nor in a library. My main occupation so far had to do with developing information systems for libraries in general.

After three years with experiments in the library in two different schools I feel that I'm starting to know something about the school as well as the school library. And it is the experiences from these two schools in Trondheim I now will present to you.

The experiment is called "the schools' information system for source material", SIS. The purpose of the experiment is to

- . establish an information retrieval system for use by the school children, where they easily can get hold of different materials from all kinds of sources like newspapers, parts of books, pictures, buildings, persons etc. etc. Through the use of the information system the school-children should
- . be able to find different materials concerning a specific topic
- . learn to use these kinds of information systems

- . get familiar with the use of data processing systems

This is what we said in the summer of 1982. The main emphasis was on making a tool, and let the students use the tool that was made specifically for their need, the schools information retrieval system. It was not that simple. I shall return to this at the end, first let me say something about the schools and how they've used the information system in their inter-disciplinary project work.

TWO SCHOOLS: A JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL AND A SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Huseby is a junior high school where the children are from 13 to 16 years old. Brundalen is a comprehensive senior high school with students from 16 to 20/40 years of age. The school has both vocational and academical courses.

At Huseby the intention was that the whole school during a three years period should use SIS, starting the first year with 7th grade pupils. At Brundalen only some specific classes were to try it out, depending upon the teachers interest. While at Brundalen a librarian is working full time, which is not normal at all senior high schools in Norway, a teacher does the library job part time at Huseby, some hours a week.

HOW TO ESTABLISH DATABASES IN SCHOOLS

The answer is, as at all other places, put in a lot of work! Our purpose was to establish a database that was particularly suited for the pupils. This meant that we had to work hard on the following topics:

- . what should the format be like, i.e. how should we describe each piece of information?
- . how should we pick keywords, what kind of rules should we follow?
- . what kind of material should be covered?
- . what subjects should we start with, we obviously could not start with the letter "A", then we would never get a system the students could use in practical work
- . what criteria should be used for choosing the documents, and how should the survey be done?

From the start we had decided to use the Polydoc information retrieval system, which is quite commonly used in libraries in Norway, especially in special libraries and for information retrieval systems in general. The version we use also runs on the schools micro machines. Both the schools have a relatively good coverage with micros, also in the library.

The five questions mentioned above we keep working on all the time. Only experience tells us how they can be solved. The biggest practical problem has so far been to actually get the material into the database.: to choose the documents, do the analyzing and registration. When we started out in 1982, we thought that many schools would come along, as well as the community library, so that we could share the burden and exchange experiences. So far this has not proved to be the case. The two schools have had to do all the work themselves.

THE USE OF DATABASES IN INTER-DISCIPLINARY PROJECT WORK

So far Brundalen has started on five different subject databases: media, dataprocessing, economy, work environment, and alternative medicine, Huseby has a quite different approach. They want all teachers and all students to take part, and use the database in connection with the inter-disciplinary project work connected to the area surrounding the school, the local environment.

At Brundalen only the work environment and alternative medicine are used directly in inter-disciplinary project work. The teachers have however found alternative ways of using the databases related to the registration part of the SIS-project. I shall return to this. First let me give some examples of how the databases are used in project work.

LOCAL CURRICULUM WORK AND THE USE OF DATABASES AT HUSEBY.

At Huseby the procedure in project work today looks approximately like the 12 steps shown in the figure on the next page. We see that the database is used on 5 different occasions. When a topic out of 16 possible ones on "local environment" is chosen by the class and their teacher possible documents and other sources had to be sought out, described in a very preliminary fashion, and entered into the database. This is the job of the teacher and the librarian.

The next time the database is used, is by the pupils when they are preparing their project work. What is the topic they've chosen really about? By searching in the database they get references to different kinds of source material, a person or chapters in particular books. When the project is finally defined, they may want to look for more material in the database concerning more specific topics. At the end when the project is finished, the pupils have to enter the references they've used in the database. They have to make proper bibliographical description, choose keywords, make a short summary and register the reference in the database. In addition they must enter the result of their own project,

which could be a report, a picture, or a speech.

1) work out a pamphlet with ideas for the project topic	•an ad-hoc group at school
2) choose the topic you want to work with	•class (3 teachers and 60 pupils)
3) choose possible source material that covers the chosen topic and make a preliminary input to the DATABASE (chapters in books, persons, sites, articles etc etc)	•librarian and/or teacher
4) how should we cover the curriculum in the different subjects (norwegian, math, naturfag, samfunnsfag)?	•the team of teachers (3 teachers)
5) each group chooses their particular topic	•a class consists of 12 heterogen groups
6) "we define preliminary goal"	•"we" are the teachers and pupils of each group (these statements are taken from the pamphlet on "project work at Huseby")
7) "we make up a "map" of the situation and a short description"	
8) "we look into literature and others experience"	•pupils search for references in the DATABASE
9) "we make a clear statement of the goal"	
10) "we make a plan of action"	
11) "we do the work"	
•make supplementary search in the DATABASE	
•register the references we have used in the DATABASE	•only if they were not already properly entered
•register the result of our own project in the DATABASE	
12) "we evaluate the project"	

At Brundalen only the work environment and alternative medicine are used directly in inter-disciplinary project work. The teachers have however found alternative ways of using the databases related to the registration part of the SIS-project. I shall return to this. first let me give some examples of how the databases are used in project work.

This way of entering the references twice has a dual purpose. First it makes it easier for the teacher and the librarian to enter a lot of references in a short time at the start of a project period. A book could contain in all five to ten different subjects or possible references. The analyzing is left for the pupil to do. In this way the pupil learns more about what an information retrieval system is, and they do a piece of very useful work, which is indeed very motivating.

At Huseby the access to source material is seen as a prerequisite for local curriculum work. They then have to search for material outside a particular textbook, and the way the library today is organized, with the use of a catalogue with references mainly to books, and not part of books, articles etc., it is not possible in practice to go through with local curriculum work.

WORK ENVIRONMENT IN DIFFERENT VOCATIONS

At Brundalen they have experience of using the database in different situations in connection with different topics such as media, economics, alternative medicine and work environment. I shall give a short account of the experiences so far.

The idea is that work environment is a topic that all the students at different streams at Brundales shall know something about. It is today a typical interdisciplinary subject. In the graphic classes for example both the chemist teacher, the Norwegian teacher and the teacher of the trade are concerned about the work environment. In this field, as well as in the others that we have started to build databases in, there is a lack of relevant material as a base for learning.

When we first started out we thought that the pupils knew how to work on projects from their previous years in school, but that is far from the reality. We have found that we shall have to spend a considerable time on giving them training in this way of working. The problem we then encounter is the conflict between curriculum and the way learning of facts is emphasized, and the way learning methods for studying and learning is similarly more or less absent from the curriculum. Where do we then take the time

needed for this kind of project work?

So by far most of our energy has been devoted to building up the databases. This is where we have the most experience. Both librarians, teachers and pupils. The pupils seem to find it challenging to seek out articles from periodicals and newspapers, read about current topics in their field of study, make summaries, and choose keywords. The final work of entering the references and proof reading gives them worthwhile experience with the maintenance of databases.

Particular the Norwegian teachers find it rewarding for the students, the way they have to make summaries of what they've read. This is an excellent training they get through doing some practical work, which you rarely find in the academic subjects at school. This seems to motivate the students in their work.

At Brundalen we shall continue to work on the databases we have established so far. The coming school year we shall particularly concentrate upon the way the different teachers at the graphic stream can coordinate their teaching of the unit on work environment. We want to find out how the teachers together can take on the responsibility for the teaching, and how this teaching should be conducted through extended use of project work. The goal being that the students shall learn to take responsibility for their own learning in this field.

THE USE OF EXTERNAL DATABASES.

Often librarians as well as teachers ask us why we don't use external databases instead of making up our own. The reason is that we don't find the existing databases in Norway particularly suitable for school children. You could as well ask why the medical students don't use the database in the local library. It usually just does not cover what they need. A tool has to be practical in order to be used, and so will the databases the pupils are going to use have to be. Nobody can expect them to go around searching in different databases that might have something on their actual subject.

At Brundalen we do to a certain extent use external databases for two purposes. Sometimes the librarian needs to help a teacher find some special material, then external databases can be of great help. Another situation is when some teachers want to show the students how a "telematique" system works. They then go to the library to search in the database for the Norwegian university libraries which are situated in Trondheim. The BIBSYS-database. We are cooperating with the Tele-authority in testing out the use of cable-TV for dataprocessing purposes. In this way we have four "lines" going directly to BIBSYS from the micros in the library. It is then possible for each student in a class to

get the experience of searching in a "real" database.

From the point of view of work at school the use of external databases is of course much to be preferred. But what does it help as long as it only is a play-tool? It certainly can't be used in connection with inter-disciplinary project work.

Summing up.

In the SIS-project it has been important that the students have a practical tool they can use in connection with project work. Such a tool is a database constructed with the needs of the students in mind. This tool is then something quite different for "automating" the schools library catalogue. The dataprocessing equipment is much too powerful just to be used to copy old technical solutions to solve traditional problems.

It has not been any problem for the students to learn how to use the retrieval system. What is difficult is to "learn how to learn". Much time has to be spent on giving the students appropriate training in project work. At Huseby this is considered part of the curriculum, the first fall the pupils spend at school they spend learning about inter-disciplinary project work, and how to take the responsibility for their own and fellow schoolmates learning. At Brundalen this is more neglected part of the schools' training. Either because it is not considered necessary, or because teachers think this is something the students should have learned before entering high school. I don't think the latter is the reason.

It has been a challenge to work with this kind of school developing projects. At Huseby they were used to this kind of work. At Brundalen however the "routines" internally at the school made it rather hard for teachers and for teachers and librarians to cooperate. A relevant question in this connection is whether schools can learn? How can the experience become more than the personal experience of those who actively took part in the SIS-project?

In connection with the revised curriculum for the primary school and the junior high schools in Norway there is much attention put on the schools' ability to go through with local curriculum work. This may be the time for the school library to show how they can be effectively used by the pupils in connection with inter-disciplinary project work. I, at least, can't see how the intentions of local curriculum work can be fulfilled without a tool similar to SIS, the schools information retrieval system for source material.

One last point at the end: the way we have used SIS at Huseby and Brundalen we have been working inter-disciplinary in more than one way. In addition to the traditional inter-disciplinary studies of for example subjects like social science and natural science, the use of SIS also involves.

- . Norwegian for making the summaries
- . dataprocessing through the use of the retrieval system and the updating of the system
- . and not the least the learning of a method for learning.

As we now feel that we have some experience with using databases in the school libraries, we hope that other schools eventually will join us, and the libraries. The job of building databases is of course not a task for a single school alone.

BIBLIOGRAPHIC SEARCH PATTERNS OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Dr. Snunith Shoham and Irith Getz.

a. Introduction.

The purpose of the research conducted was to discover the entire search process of the individual student in order to find whether there are patterns of bibliographic search that can be identified.

Studies done up to now deal either with ideal teoretical models which specify ideal search behaviour [1] (Most of them analyzed librarians and not average users or students); or with separate search tactics, trying to find which of the tactics are commonly used. [2] (By search tactics we mean a move made to further a search).

In this research we studied the comprehensive behaviour of each individual student in order to differentiate between groups that are characterized by different search patterns.

Understanding the students' search behaviour and the factors influencing their behaviour should help us in managing our school libraries and in the construction of library instruction programs.

Our main hypothesis was that each student has his particular tactics and search behaviour: that there are different bibliographic search patterns that can be identified; and that there is a succession of patterns from the simple search pattern to the most sophisticated.

b. Research Methodology

Population and Sample: The study's population consisted of Israeli twelfth-grade students in urban and rural areas who prepare a final project in the humanities or in the social sciences (preparing a final project exempts the student from one of the matriculation examinations.) These students were chosen as the research population knowing that for the conduct of this research project they would have to engage in at least some bibliographic search. The sample comprised of two hundred students from 15 rural and urban high schools from all over the country.

Gathering of data: The information was gathered through closed questionnaires that were filled out by the students in the autumn of 1984. This was the time when the students were supposed to finish their bibliographic search.

The questionnaire was designed to help the student reconstruct the bibliographic search he/she conducted for his/her specific project. The questions therefore follow the estimated steps of the student: from the help he/she got, through the different libraries visited, the materials gathered, and the use of these materials.

The questions were designed so as to give us information about 13 categories of the search process that we defined based on the existing literature. (see Table 1) The categories can be grouped into the three stages of a bibliographic search:

- (a) search preparation
(categories 1 to 3);
- (b) locating the bibliographic material
(categories 4 to 10); and
- (c) searching the sources themselves
(categories 11 to 13).

We looked at the various behaviours in the bibliographic searching from the quantitative and qualitative standpoints. By quantity we mean use of few channels. By quality we mean use of informal channels, which are easier to use and require less effort or use of formal channels, which require more effort.

Informal information channels include use of the media, communication with people. Formal information channels are, for example, use of books or non-book materials, or use of the catalogue.

In each of the categories we classified the different behaviours by their dependence on formal or informal information channels and by the number of information sources used. We defined three types of behaviour:

- (1) Simple search tactics - characterized by dependence on informal channels and by search behaviour that does not require much effort, such as the use of only few sources and reference tools;
- (2) More complicated search tactics involving dependence on formal information channels, and more complex search behaviour such as use of more informal sources, many and more complicated reference tools;
- (3) Sophisticated search tactics including use of both formal and informal channels and use of more tactics simultaneously.

Students were classified, for example in ways such as: Category 2 - initial search in the library for unknown material. Type of behaviour 1 - asked for the librarian's help, or browsed among the shelves. Type of behaviour 2 - searched the catalogue. Type of behaviour 3 - did at least two of: (a) asked the librarian's help, (b) browsed among the shelves, (c) searched the catalogue.

c. Search Patterns

In order to define each student's search pattern, we determined his/her ways of behaviour in the 13 categories.

We performed the statistical calculations for each student twice, first by measuring the search pattern by determining his/her most frequent type of behaviour in the 13 categories (by the mode), and second by the mean. Each type of behaviour received a value: type of behaviour 1 received the value 1, type of behaviour 2 received the value 2, and behaviour 3 received the value 3. The sum of the values in each of the 13 categories gave the score.

Next, the possible relations between these two ways of calculation were determined. At the edges there was overlapping between the two ways, which gave us a clear grouping at the edges but not in the intermediate area. That was how we defined three bibliographic search patterns: the simple, the intermediate, and the sophisticated.

The statistical calculations verified our main assumption: the existence of identifiable, successive bibliographic search patterns. The two search patterns at the edges (the simple and the sophisticated) were clearly defined. In between them there was some difficulty in exactly defining the boundaries, hence our referring to this bibliographic search pattern as the intermediate search pattern. We do not mean to suggest that one search pattern is better than the other. However, when we analyzed the relation between the search pattern and the estimated number of bibliographic references in the project, there was a significant correlation: the more complicated the search pattern, the more bibliographic references ($\alpha = 0.001$, $DF = 8$, $X^2 = 33.45707$). Thus, we may conclude that more complicated or sophisticated search will yield more results.

Half of the students were in search pattern 2 - the intermediate pattern. Twenty-eight percent were in the simple search pattern, while only 22% were in the sophisticated search pattern. This finding is somewhat disappointing, considering that the study's population consisted of twelfth-grade students before their matriculation.

However, there were some differences between the urban and the rural students. Among rural students (most of them kibbutz dwellers) only 16% belonged to search pattern 3, as compared to 40% of the urban school students, implying that the sophisticated search pattern is more widespread among the latter. One explanation might be the fact that in the kibbutzim most of the students are encouraged to prepare a final project (even though only some of them are submitted at the end to the Ministry of Education), whereas among the urban students only selected students engage in a final research project.

d. Use of the various tactics by urban and rural students

Use of Libraries:

There were two significant differences between rural and urban students (see Table 2).

1. The percentage of students using each library: the rural students made extensive use (more than 50% of them) of only two types of libraries (the school and the kibbutz library); whereas the urban students tended to use all types of libraries in great numbers.

2. The preferred libraries: rural students preferred the school library and then the kibbutz library (which resembles a public library), while among the urban students the preferred library was the university library and they used the school and public libraries less.

The high use of public and school libraries among rural students might be related to the superior collections of the kibbutz libraries as compared to the urban school libraries. That might also be the reason for the high use of university libraries in the cities (together with their accessibility).

The Catalogue

Eighty-seven percent of the students said they had used the catalogue: however, the amount of use was low. Most of them used it only from one to five times (in the process of collecting materials for this specific project). They tended not to use it if it was at all avoidable. Forty-three percent of them used all three types of catalogues: author, title and subject; 75% of them used the subject catalogue, which is the more complicated catalogue to use.

The Sources

Ninety-nine percent of the students used non-fiction materials. Almost 70% used encyclopaedias, and 82% used periodicals. Some 67% of the students who used encyclopedias used them for acquiring background information on the topic. Some 65% of the students also used them for getting information on related subjects and concepts. Only 20% also used them as a source for added references.

There was no significant difference between rural and urban students in the use of encyclopedias, or in the percentage of students using periodicals. However, there was a difference in the amount of periodicals used: 46% of the urban students who used periodicals searched more than six compared to only 23% of the rural students.

Information agents

At least part of the bibliographic search was done through informal information channels. Almost 90% of the students were helped by the project adviser in their search (see Table 3); 55% were helped by the librarian and only 34% by the teacher. The narrow role of the librarian (compared to what one might expect), and especially the fact that only one-third of the students were helped by the teachers, points to two of the weak points of our education system concerning the library.

The students were asked what they felt helped them most, formal or informal channels (see Table 4). Most of the students (80%) felt that they were helped most by informal channels. However, there was a difference between the urban and the rural students: 48% of the rural students felt that the informal channels helped them the most, compared to only 31% of the urban students.

Library instruction

Eighty-one percent of the students received some kind of library instruction. There were significant differences between urban and rural students as to what sort of library instruction they received (see Table 5)

Library instruction was more common in the rural schools. Some 82% of the rural students received some kind of library instruction during their school years, compared to only 42% of the urban students. Also, in junior-high schools more students received library instruction in rural schools (46%) than in urban schools (15%).

In the rural schools, instruction was given mostly in the library through a formal lecture or series of lectures.

Instruction in relation to the final project was given to about 56% of both rural and urban students.

e. Discussion

We wanted to discover the possible relations between the search patterns and the students' characteristics. The obvious differences we found between urban and rural students in their search tactics, and in the distribution of the bibliographic search patterns among them, aroused the question: why?

Rural students used more informal channels. It may be that the encouraging environment they were exposed to helped them too much: thus they were discouraged from making efforts in their bibliographic search. Rural students used fewer periodicals than urban students, whereas urban students used more university and special libraries. Only 16% of the rural students belonged to the sophisticated search pattern compared to 40% of the urban students.

All this, despite the fact that library instruction during schooling years is more common among the rural students than among the urban students.

Thus we analyzed the relation between the search pattern and the timing of the library and bibliographic instruction. A significant correlation was found between the search pattern and the receipt of instruction in connection to the project. Seventy-three percent of the search pattern 3 students received instruction in connection to the project, compared to 53% of search pattern 2 and 41% of search pattern 1.

We then studied the relation between the search pattern and receipt of library instruction from the project adviser. A significant correlation was found: 41% of search pattern 3 students received instruction from their project adviser, compared to 20% of search pattern 2 and only 12% of search pattern 1.

The profession of the adviser was also correlated to the search pattern. When the project adviser was an academic or research person, the search pattern tended to be more sophisticated. Forty-one percent of search pattern 3 students had an academic or research person as the project adviser, compared to only 14% and 16% of patterns 2 and 1, respectively. When the adviser was a school teacher the tendency was toward search pattern 1.

It was more common among urban students to have an academic or research person as an adviser, and it was more common among rural students to have a teacher as the project adviser. Therefore, we assumed that the type of adviser and not the place of study influences the search pattern. When we checked this by keeping the adviser constant, the relation between the place and the search pattern disappeared. This study's results point to the importance of giving the library instruction at the time when it is needed and of focusing it on the topic the student is working on.

A point of concern is the inverse relation between instruction from school teachers and the search pattern. The teachers seemed to lack an awareness of methods of bibliographic search.

As for the librarians' influence, most of the students got at least some library instruction from the librarian. We found a correlation between instruction from the librarian in connection to the project and sophisticated search pattern. This also corroborates the importance of the timing of the library instruction.

Notes:

1. See for example: F.S. Stych, "Teaching reference work: the flow-chart method." RQ 5 (1966): 14-15; W.K. Katz, Introduction to Reference work v.2, 2nd ed. New York: McGraw Hill, 1974; J. Benson and R.K. Maloney, "Principles of searching." RQ 14

(1975): 316-320; M.J. Bates, "Information search tactics." Journal of the American Society for Information Science, 30 (1979): 205-214.

2. See for example: R. Tayliacozzo and M. Kochen, "Information seeking behaviour of catalog users." Information storage and retrieval 6 (1970): 363-381; M.B. Line, "The information uses and needs of school scientists: an overview of INFROSS." Aslib proceedings 23 (1971): 412-413; L.A. Wood, "Online bibliographic searching and student use of information: an innovative teaching approach." School Library Media Quarterly 11 (1982): 35-42; R. Hafter, "The performance of card catalog: a review of research." Library Research 1 (1979): 199-222; M. Flachman, A study of student use of the catalogue in high school library media centers (Grades 10-12) Colorado, University of Colorado; J.C. Mancall and M.C. Drott, Measuring student information use: a guide for school library media specialists. Littleton. Littleton, Colo: Libraries unlimited, 1983.

3. See S. Shoham and I. Getz, "Bibliographic Search Patterns". Library and Information Science Research 10 (1988) [Forthcoming].

4. A. Meyer, "Some important finding in catalogue use studies: in F. W. Lancaster, Measurement and Evaluation of Library Services. Washington D.C.: Information Resources Press, 1977. pp. 69-72.

Table 1:

The Thirteen Categories

SEARCH PREPARATION

1. Kind of help
2. First search in the library for unknown material
3. The student's feeling regarding information channels that help most.

LOCATING THE BIBLIOGRAPHIC MATERIAL

4. The libraries visited by the student
5. The sign that helps to locate the shelf
6. Type of catalogue used
7. Purpose of catalogue use
8. The catalogue records area
9. The reason for approaching the shelves
10. Locating the needed shelf

SEARCHING THE SOURCES

11. Using the encyclopedia
12. Using non-fiction books
13. Locating material in a periodical

Table 2:

Distribution of the Preferred Libraries by place of schooling (by percentage)

Rank	Rural Students		Urban Students	
1.	School library	96%	University Library	83%
2.	Kibbutz library	68%	Home library	65%
3.	Home library	36%	School library	58%
4.	University library	35%	Special library	52%
5.	Special library	28%	Public library	48%
6.	Public library	18%		

Table 3:

Distribution of Information Agents (by percentage)

Information Agent	Percentage of students who received help from
Project adviser	88.9%
Librarian	55.1%
Teacher	33.8%
Parents	21.7%
Friends	11.1%
Siblings	6.6%
Others	15.7%

Table 4:

The channels that the students felt helped them most (by percentage)

Channel Rural Students		Urban	Students All Students
Informal	48%	31.3%	43.9%
Formal	16%	31.3%	19.7%
Informal & Formal	36%	37.5%	36.4%

Table 5:

Differences in library instruction between rural and urban students

Instruction in rural schools	Instruction in urban schools
1. A tendency to give instruction without relation to final project .	1. A tendency to give instruction with relation to the project.
2. A tendency to give library instruction in junior-high and high schools.	2. A tendency to give instruction in high school only.
3. A strong tendency to give instruction in the library.	3. No preferred place for giving the the instruction.
4. A tendency to give the instruction through one or a series of lectures without relation to the project.	4. A tencency to give personal instruction with relation to the final project.



NON-FICTION FOR CHILDREN IN ICELAND

1974-1983.

Ingibjörg Sverrisdóttir,

The main part of this paper is a survey of non-fiction for children in Iceland in 1974-83. Two years ago, I made a survey for the period 1974-82 and delivered a lecture at a program in Námsgagnastofnun (The National Centre for Educational Materials in Iceland) where non-fiction books for children were the subject. That survey covered nine years, because our National bibliography had lagged behind, but I was able to add one year for this lecture. This is an abbreviation of the original lecture. But first, a little history or orientation:

The first Icelandic book which was published for children was: Barnaljóð, ort af síra Vigfúsi Jónssyni = Poems for children, written by pastor Vigfús Jónsson. (Picture no 1) It was printed in Copenhagen 1780 by His Majesty's Typhographer, Nicholas Møller. Pastor Vigfús wrote the poems 40 years earlier for his daughter, to give her examples of morals, ethics and good behaviour. His nephew, Jón Eiríksson a notable person in our history, published the book and wrote forewords.

The next book for children was published in 1795 and was printed in an Icelandic press, in Leirargarðar in Borgarfjörður. (Picture no. 2) The owner of the press was Magnús Stephensen, an official of the Danish government, who was an active publisher and wrote some books himself. He also wrote forewords for this book, which was named Sumargjöf handa börnum = A summer present for children. The book was translated from Danish by pastor Guðmundur Jónsson, but came originally from Germany. The book contains short stories and tales, and like the first one, gives examples of good morals and behaviour, but unlike it, threatens with various penalties if the children do not behave properly.

Children's books were published with a few years interval during the 19th century and in the beginning of the 20th, but most of them were translated from other languages, mostly from Danish. Only a small number of books originally written in Icelandic were published. Non-fiction, like we know it today, was hardly there, but many of them were fiction with all kinds of facts and knowledge within or hidden, the authors tried to pass on valuable information through the story and it is often difficult to decide what is fiction,

and what is not.

Pictures were rare, but one of the first books with pictures is Myndabók handa börnum = Picture book for children, published by Egill Jónsson in Copenhagen 1853 and this book is definitely a non-fiction. (Picture no. 3) In those days it was perfectly normal to translate and publish a book without relating the author, only the publisher was mentioned, like in this case. But the book is most likely translated, because it tells about foreign people in foreign environment. It was also quite common not to mention the artist who illustrated the whole.

In the beginning of the twentieth century a few Icelandic artists started to illustrate children's books and many of them had studied abroad and been inspired there. One of them is Jóhannes Kjarval, who is our most prominent painter, one can also name Tryggvi Magnússon, whose works are full of Icelandic tales and heritage. Many of these books were picture books for small children, with a short story or a fairy tale. The first artist who made picture books for children was Guðmundur Thorsteinsson, called Muggur. His book Dimmalimm, (Picture no. 4) a fairy tale which was published after his death in 1942 and his pictures in Gunnar Egilssons book Negrastrákarnir = The black boys, which is a rhyme have become a classic.

As I said earlier, it is often difficult to distinguish between fiction and non-fiction in literature. The first original Icelandic non-fiction is supposed to be Kak, (Picture no. 5) which was published in two volumes in 1934 and 1935. However, this book was written in English by Violet Irvin and Vilhjálmur Stefánsson, a famous Icelandic-Canadian arctic explorer. She wrote the text, based on his travels among eskimos in Alaska and his diaries. He then changed and added to the manuscript before publishing. The book describes few months in the life of a eskimo boy, Kak, so it really is a mixture of fiction and non-fiction. The book was translated by two men, Jóhannes úr Kötlum, a famous Icelandic poet, who also was a teacher in Austurbæjarskólinn, an elementary school in Reykjavík, and the head-principal of that school, Sigurður Thorlacius.

It is said that writing and translating non-fiction for children in Iceland originates within that school, Austurbæjarskólinn. Many good teachers worked there and they realised and acknowledged the need for good books in addition to textbooks. Many of them were writers, translators or publishers of both children's books and textbooks. This began around 1930, but in 1936 the forerunner of Námsgagnastofnun (The National Centre for Educational Materials in Iceland), Ríkisútgáfa námsbóka was founded. These books were perhaps not many in numbers, but this was the beginning, and it was not until the last twenty years that simplified versions of various subjects, such as geography, history, zoology and botany have been published. These newer books do not have the

character of fiction, like the older ones, but in those, the text often became dry and boring and very little attempt was made to achieve literary effects. The stress was laid on bringing facts and information, f.x. in dialogues where some grown up is telling youngsters about "ways of life".

During the last twenty years or so, the number of these "new" non-fiction books has grown slowly, but steadily. Most of them are translated like before and it will probably remain so in the future. In this period some children's encyclopaedias have been published, (Picture no. 6) the first in 1957. Most of them are in one volume, with pictures or drawings and they have all been translated. In later years some of those books have been with an Icelandic appendix.

When I started my survey, I had to begin from the beginning, because little had been written about this subject before. My main source for the historic chapter is Silja Aðalsteinsdóttir book Íslenskar barnabækur 1780-1979 = Icelandic children's books 1780-1979, which was published in 1981. This book deals with Icelandic children's books, but mostly from the literary point of view. Only a small chapter discusses non-fiction and mainly the older books, and the mixture of fiction and non-fiction. My main source of information was therefore our National bibliography, which started in 1974 in its present form, and the books, themselves. Children's books are classified with B in the National bibliography and I started by making cards for all the non-fiction B's, which were published in the period. I also checked on some other books which I felt that could belong. These were all kinds of books, which I knew from experience that could be regarded either as books for children or adults, and then there were some titles in the bibliography, which I wanted to check on. Some of the books I included were classified as fiction in the National bibliography, but are mixture of fiction and non-fiction.

Some areas I discarded completely. As an example, all kind of literature, stories, plays, poems and songbooks without music. Also Icelandic sagas and folk-tales, fairy-tales et cetera. Also I discarded all textbooks and books published by Námsgagnastofnun (The National Centre for Educational Materials). Also Bible-stories and gospel, for the same reason as folk-tales and fairy-tales, they are literature by presentation.

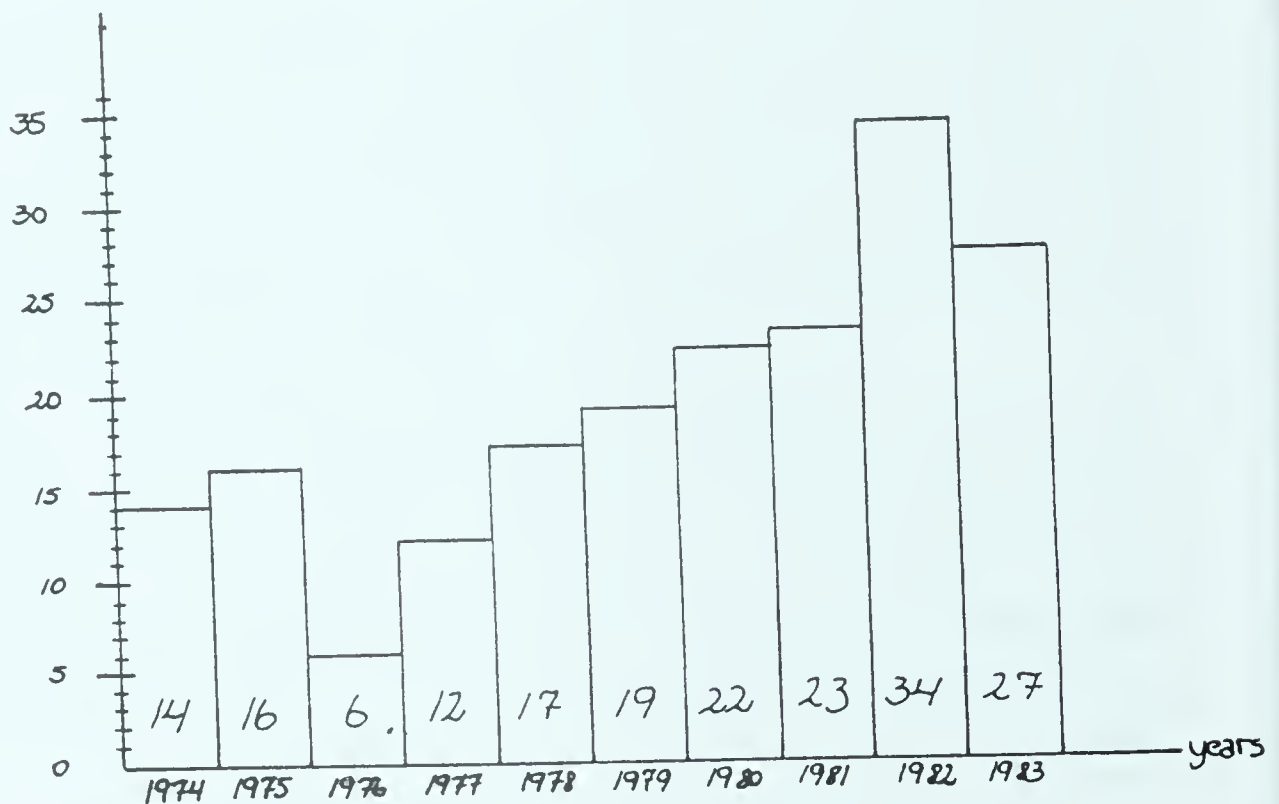
When I had completed the cards, I started to check the books, made notes whether they had subject indexes or other indexes, pictures, maps and physical appearance, but I did not classify them in any way. For various reasons I had to add few more titles when I started to work with the books, and also I withdrew second editions and some other books. At last I had 187 non-fiction titles for children during those 10 years. The number of books published in each year during the period is shown on table 1.

Table no. 1.

Number of books published each year in the period.

Number of books published each year. (Non-Fiction).

No. of books

Total = 187

The highest number of books is in 1982, but goes down again in 1983. Anyhow the growth seems to be steady.

The whole bulk of published books in those years in Iceland were 9.922 books and booklets according to the National bibliography. Some of those are of course re-editions, but as I do not count them in my survey, I can not find the exact percentage of children's non-fiction, but roughly I guess it is 2-2 1/2%, which is very small part, compared to the fact, that children under 15 years are more than 25% of our whole population. The average publishing is 922 titles a year, but about 20 for children's non-fiction, including re-editions.

I divided the books by Dewey Decimal Classification, in order to see the subject areas. This is shown in table 2.

Table no. 2
Subject division of books by DDC.

000 Generalities	5
100 Philosophy and related disciplines	1
200 Religion	23
300 Social Sciences	17
400 Language	15
500 Pure Sciences	34
600 Technology	25
700 Arts	32
800 Literature	0
900 Geography, History, Biography	35
<hr/>	
Total =	187

In 000, Generalities, four books on computers were published and one encyclopaedia. One book on psychology was published. In 200 there are handbooks about Israel, Christianity and The Bible, only two of the books deal with other religions. In 300 there are books about disabled or handicapped people, ecology, politics and social sciences. In 400 there are mainly dictionaries. In 500 we have mathematics, numbers and quantities, colours, geology, zoology, and botany. Books about the human body and sex education are dominant in 600, also there are automobiles, ships, agriculture and fisheries. Music and chess are most popular in 700, and also games and riddles. In 800 there is no book at all and 900 has the biggest number, 35 books and they deal of course with history, biography and geography.

The division between Icelandic and translated books is shown in table 3.

Table no. 3
Number and percentage of Icelandic and translated books.

48 books are Icelandic	or	25.67%
139 books are translated	or	74.33%
<hr/>		
Total = 187		100%

This is a high percentage of translations and we have a reason to be a little worried. But it also gives the publishers the responsibility to select carefully the books which are translated, but unfortunately, I suspect that this selection is made without any criticism, except that they think they can sell the book.

But where do these translated books come from? I tried to find out the original language, mostly from information on the books themselves, and the result is shown in table 4.

Table no. 4

Original language of translated books.

English	81
French	15
Danish	14
Norwegian	5
Italian	3
Swedish	2
Faroese	1
Dutch	1
German	1
Not known	16

Total = 139

More than half of the books are translated from English, and are from The United States and The United Kingdom. Books from the Scandinavian countries are only 22, but no books are from Finland, Greenland or Lapland, though some children's fiction has been translated from these nations. 16 of these books held no information on authors or original language in the book itself, and I could not find out from where they originate. I guess that some are from Spain or Italy.

With all respect, it is also worrying, that more than half of the books come from English speaking nations. There is always the risk, of the child experiencing a one sided view of the world. When we add this to the never ending flow of English and American material in TV, movies, music and magazines, this is a great danger for small nations like the Icelandic, and I know that some of you know this problem from your own countries.

I then checked on the authors, how many had more than one book. Only one Icelfander had two books, the others only one. This author, Stefán Aðalsteinsson, is a scientist in the field of agriculture and domestic animals. His books have won prizes and been acknowledged for being very suitable for children, and also they are beautiful examples of good work. His first book, Sauðkindin, landið og þjóðin = The sheep, the land and the nation, is a necessary book in Iceland, where the sheep has given the people food and clothes for more than thousand years. The second book is Húsdýrin okkar = Our domestic animals, deals with all common domestic animals in Iceland. Recently he has added one more book Fuglarnir okkar = Our birds, which deals with Icelandic birds. Stefán (Picture no. 7) is an example of a scientist who can share his knowledge and experience with the younger generations in a highly suitable manner.

14 foreign authors had more than one book translated. Eric Hill has 7 books, from two publishing houses, and the highest number. His books are for small children, and deal as an example with the alphabeth, time, numbers and the months. Three authors have 5 books and they are: Pierre Dupuis, a French author, and his books are a series on the World War II in pictures. Helen Oxenbury is British and her books are pretty picture-books without words, and Colin McNaughton, whose books are series for youngsters and deal with concepts and their opposites.

There are 38 publishers of these 187 books. These include publishing houses, the authors themselves, institutions and organizations. In two cases, the publisher is not mentioned. The publisher who had the highest number of non-fiction books published is Bjallan = The Bell, with 30 books and also the highest rate of Icelandic books, or 8. This publishing house has specialized in children's books, with great success. Their books are all good examples of how children's books should be, but achieving that status is quite expensive and as our market is very small, they are always on the brink of financial disaster. They published the books of Stefán Aðalsteinsson, which I mentioned earlier. Our biggest publishing houses are next in the line, but the quality of their books is not as good as could be expected.

Finally I tried to divide the books by which age group they are designed for. This is a very rough division and I know that my division can be challenged, but this can give you some ideas:

Table no. 5

Division of books by age groups.

	<u>Icelandic books</u>	<u>Translations</u>	<u>Total</u>
1. 0- 6 years	2	35	37
2. 6- 9 years	20	35	55
3. 9-12 years	22	57	79
4. 12-15 years	4	12	16
<hr/>			
Total =	48	139	187

In the first group 0-6 years are only two Icelandic books out of 37, both teaching the alphabeth. Most of the books are in group 2 and 3 but group 4 has few books. Children at the age of 12-15 can very often use books published for the common market, so this is not as alarming, as it looks like.

As I said before, I did not try to classify the books in any way by quality of text, or layout. But when you work with the books in this way, and especially when you use them in the school library, you will get desperately aware of the lack of suitable material. And as you can see by these numbers, we can not afford to be very selective, even though we try very hard to set up some standards. Many school librarians and teachers have tried to discuss these matters with the publishers, in order to get more and better books, and hopefully we will see the results in the years ahead.

Picture no. 1

Barna-Lioð

ordt af

Sal. Sira

Wigfusa Johnsóni,

fordum Presti at Sted i Stedvar : Firdi i
Sudur : Parti Mula : Enslu.

Med Liufings-Lag.



Kaupmannahöfn,

Prentud af Hofboðprentara Nicolasi Møller.

1 7 8 0.

Sunnar = Gjöf

handa

Börn um

frá

Era. Gudmundi Jónssyni

Prófasti í Arneshöfðum og Sóknar-Presti
til Olafsvalla á Skeidum.

Leir árgörðum

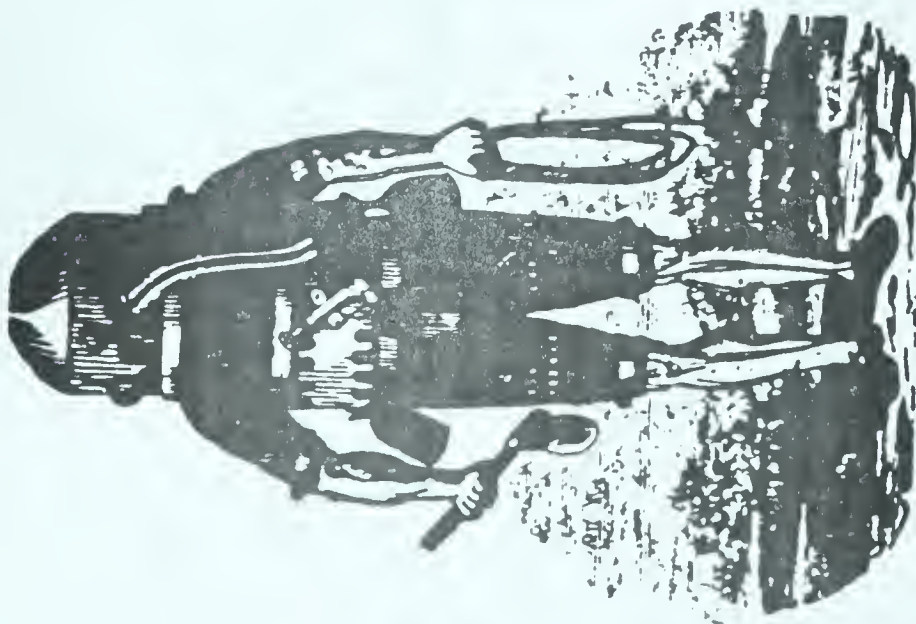
Selfst almennt innbundin 16. flkum.

Leir árgörðum vid Leirá, 1795.

Prentud ad Forlagi ens Íslenska Lands-
uppsæðingar Sélags af Bókprynciara
G. J. Schagfjörð.

3. Kósumarmadurinn.

Hjerna sjerðu skringilega mannsmynd
niðri á sjóarbotni. Þú sjer, að hana er
vel út lúna. Á höfðinu og um málid
hefur hana spengur úr sterku pjátri, og er
í crunastuttri treyju og brókum úr valmheldu
leðri. Þessi fútur eru fót við pjáturapengurnar,
og eru bólkar um skálarnar að neðan og
ermarnar að framan, svo ekki komist vatn á
milli. Út úr höfðinu eru tvær leðurpipur,
sem ná upp úr vatninu, og tregur madurinn
anda gegnum þær: einn á annari hefur
hann í munni sjer, til að geta af leð að sjer,
en upp um hina fer loftið, sem hann andar
frá sjer. Við fótin hans hanga blýð, til
að halda honum niðri. Þegar madurinn vill
fara upp, leysir hann leðin af sjer, og hnyr.
Í þau öðrum endanum á ermarnu, sem hann
heldur á, en hinn endinn er ofansjerar. Síðan
hallar hann upp um pípuana til lagumanna sinna.

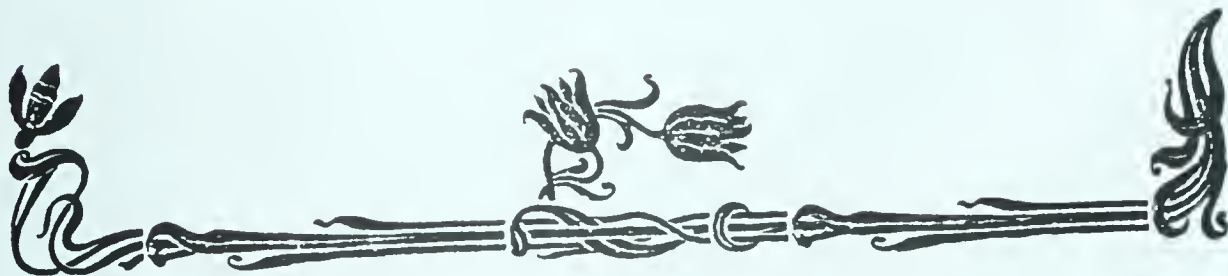


Úr Mýrðabók handa börna, 1853. Listamaðurinn ákunnur.

Gilja Adalsteinsdóttir: Íslenskar barnabækur 1780-1979.
Þ). 1980

Picture no. 4





VILHJÁLMUR STEFANSSON
OG VIOLET IRWIN

K A K
EIR-ESKIMÓINN

I

DÝÐENDUR:
JÓHANNES ÚR KÓTLUM
SIGURÐUR THORLACIUS

AKUREYRI 1934
ÞORSTEINN M. JÓNSSON

GEFID ÚT MEÐ
NEÐMÆLUM SKÓLAKAÐS BARNASKÓLANNNA

Picture no. 5

187

Picture no. 6

VERÖLDIN OG VIÐ

NÝ FJÖLFRÆÐIBÓK

TEXTANN SÖMDU

GUNILLA OG MAGNUS LINDBERG

MYNDIRNAR GERÐU

BO MOSSBERG OG

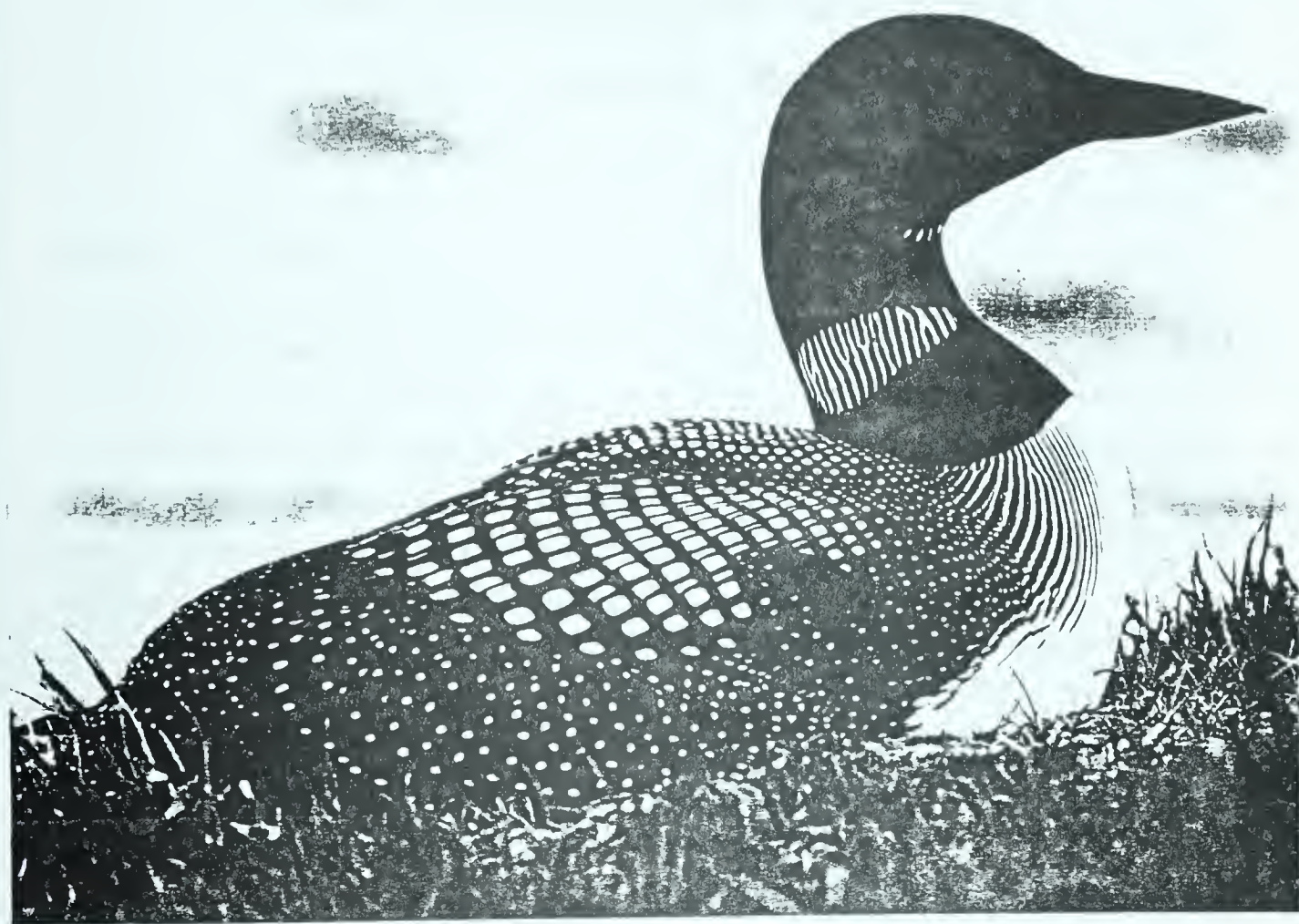
NILS STÖDBERG



FREYSTEINN GUNNARSSON
ÞÝDDI OG STAÐFÆRÐI Í ÝMSUM ATRIÐUM

S E T B E R G

[1967]



Himbrimi

Himbrimi

Himbriminn er stór fugl, á stærð við gæs.

Himbriminn er svartur á höfði og hálsi. Hálsinn er með blágræna slikju og með ljósa, röndotta bletti. Bakið er svart með hvítum, reglulegum reitum, og neðri hlutinn á fuglinum er hvítur.

Himbriminn er upprunninn í Norður-Ameríku, og Ísland er eina landið í Evrópu þar sem hann verpir.

Himbriminn er ófær til gangs, því að fæturnir eru svo aftarlega. Hann er aftur á móti mjög duglegur að synda og kafar ágætlega. Í kafi syndir hann með fótunum, en heldur vængjunum að bolnum. Hann getur synt í kafi svo skiptir kílómetrum og aðeins komið upp ur til að anda við og við.

Himbriminn gerir sér óvandað hreiður nálægt vatnsbakka og verpir í það tveimur eggjum sem foreldrarnir skiptast á um að liggja á.



KEYWORDS AND LEARNING
THE MICROCOMPUTER IN THE SCHOOL
LIBRARY PROJECT (MISLIP)

Dorothy A Williams

1. Educational context.

Secondary education in the U. K. is currently undergoing radical changes in line with a general shift towards process rather than content-based education. In Scotland recent reports covering age groups from 10 to 18 (1) stress the need for youngsters to develop a greater independence in learning.

The Munn and Dunning reports particularly have had far reaching effects in stimulating changes in the curriculum and assessment procedures for 14-16 year olds which are already being implemented. The emphasis on the pupil as an independent learner is seen in, among other things, the clear importance being placed on information handling skills in the outlines of the new subject syllabuses.

Recent reports (2) have also focused attention on the need for a more active involvement of librarians within the learning process, not only in the resourcing of the curriculum but also in the development of information skills.

The Microcomputer in the School Library Project, MISLIP (3), was therefore planned at a time when many librarians and teachers were consciously seeking guidance on ways of developing information skills in secondary schools. There had been much research on skills (4) and a limited amount had been done on the use of the microcomputer as an information retrieval tool in school (5). There had been very little research, however, into the integration of information skills and information technology (IT) and there was a history of computers being badly used in relation to the needs of the curriculum.

MISLIP was planned with the broad aims of

- a) integrating information skills with information technology;
- b) identifying ways of helping pupils develop skills of finding and using information.

An in-depth studying one school (1983-1985) provided a useful testing ground

for ideas which have been taken up and adapted locally in six more schools around Scotland in Phase 2 (1985-1987) This account will concentrate on some of the developments and findings from the second phase of the project.

2. MISLIP: a keyword approach to learning.

The "keyword approach to learning" (KAL) investigated by MISLIP, aims to encourage pupils to think about their purpose and help them define their information needs. This is seen as a link through all the subsequent stages of finding and using relevant information. The approach is based on the language they use to define their needs - the keywords of the classroom and their own experience which summarise their knowledge of the topic. (Fig.1.)

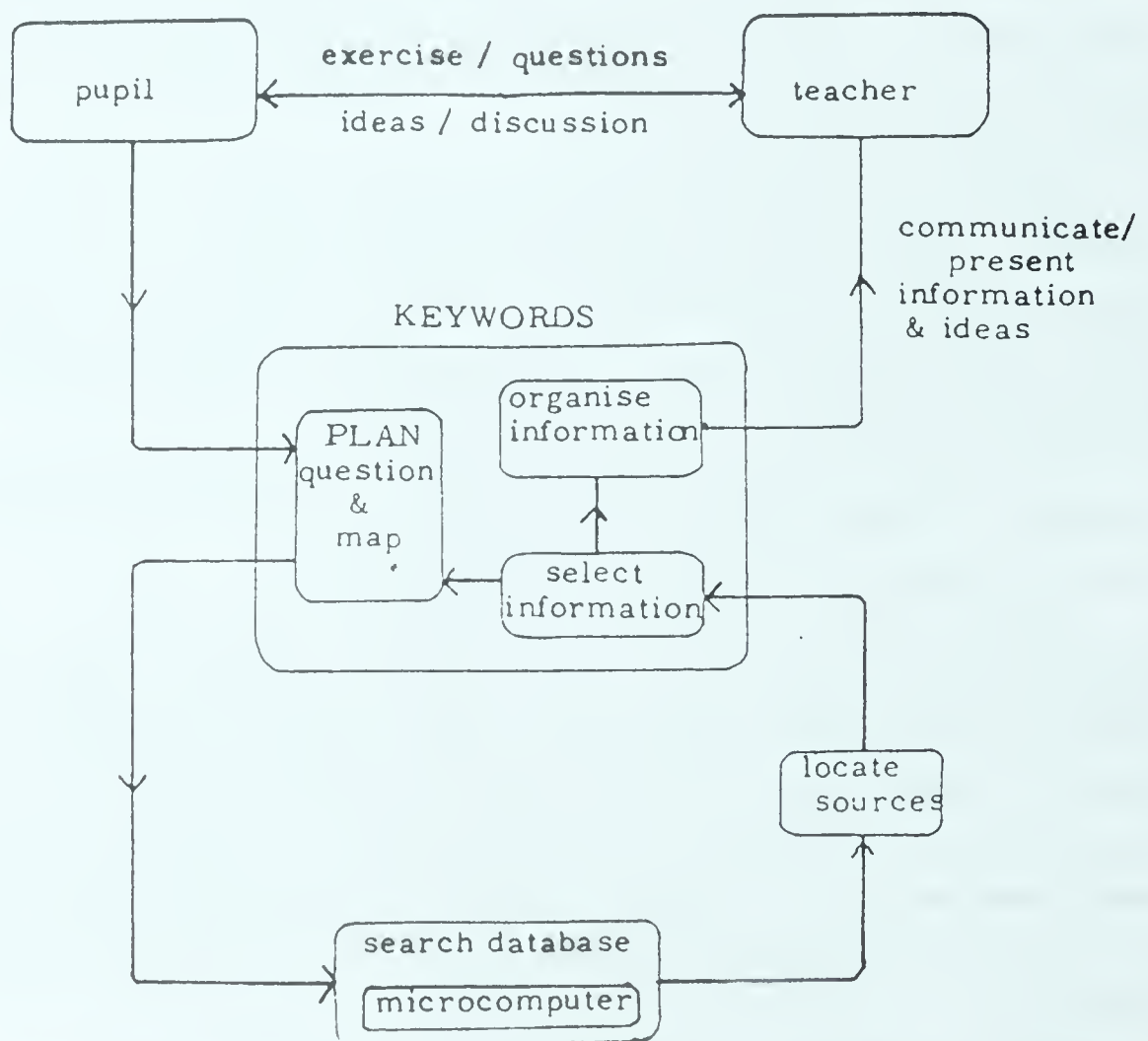


Fig. 1; The flow of information

(From Williams, D.A. & Herring, J. E:
Keywords and Learning. RGIT, 1986

It is important to stress that the keyword approach is not concerned with keywords

in isolation. The essence of the approach is that the relationship between keywords is as important as the words themselves. In grouping two or more keywords as part of a search for information or in summarising new information, the learner is using the most fundamental classification skills - thinking skills - to relate new information to existing knowledge in order to develop understanding rather than a simple collection of facts. Keywords are therefore used as language links between purpose and information.

The microcomputer is used at the information retrieval stage when pupils can search databases of bibliographic and / or factual information which have been indexed using curriculum-based keywords. This use of the microcomputer is designed to complement a keyword approach and enhance the link between needs and information. It is not seen as a full computerised catalogue for general use.

Small specialised databases have been designed and created by librarians and teachers in a number of Scottish secondary schools. Their aims and design vary (see below) but a common feature is the attempt to index information / sources with keywords based on the curriculum and the language pupils will use in defining their enquiries. The databases are designed to help the learner bridge the gap between two states of knowledge, to encourage him/her to think about purpose and needs, and to understand how to use this as a starting point in finding more information. This understanding is an important element in learning how to learn.

In the pilot phase of the project (6) a series of activities designed to demonstrate to pupils and teachers the role of KAL in a wider information context was piloted with first and second year secondary school pupils (12-14 years old). They related keywords to planning, reading, notemaking and presentation and were designed to encourage a personal "learning to learn" strategy. These activities concentrate on techniques such as questioning, keyword mapping and keyword clustering within the framework of planning an enquiry or summarising new information.

In Phase 2 of the project, MISLIP has been concerned with analysing the effect of the keyword approach on all those involved - pupils, teachers and librarians. It was seen as important not only to establish whether it could help the learner, as had been indicated in Phase 1, but also to understand what issues were involved in setting up such a system in a school. Six secondary schools in Scotland have therefore been involved for two years in developing a keyword approach, so that information can be gained about the feasibility and adaptability of the approach in a wide range of teaching/learning situations.

Schools were selected by Local Education Authorities, the only stipulations being that each school should have a qualified librarian and access to a microcomputer in the library for at least one day a week. Schools were provided with a simple file management program for the BBC microcomputer which is the most common micro in British

schools. Schools were given freedom, however, to use any other database software available to them in order to develop the kind of databases which suited their own curricular needs.

An important feature of the project is that teachers and librarians have taken charge of their own research and development. They were asked to select topics/courses within their own curriculum where the MISLIP approach was seen as relevant to the development of pupils' ability to find and use information. Their starting points have usually been areas where a problem had already been identified. This policy has enabled librarians and teachers to develop at their own pace, an important factor in working with schools during what has been an unsettled period of industrial action.

Emphasis was placed on integrating KAL with existing curricular tasks and topics. In this way, librarians and teachers became involved on an individual level very early in the project, with developments linked to specific aspects of their own work. All databases and information skills initiatives in Phase 2 have, therefore, been the products of the schools themselves.

Librarians and teachers have also been encouraged to make notes or keep diaries of progress. Such sources of feedback on day-to-day decisions provide useful additions to the records of discussions and observations made by the researcher during visits to each school.

3. What has been happening in MISLIP schools ?

3. 1 Databases

The trend in schools has been to focus on the development of databases in the early stages of the project. This was an aspect of MISLIP which presented most worries for teachers and librarians with little experience of the use of IT. It was also, however, seen as the aspect which had the greatest potential to motivate and interest pupils and other teachers.

Each school is working with at least one group of 12-13 year olds but several are also working with a wide range of age groups and with different kinds of assignments, from small first year "projects" to senior dissertations. The range of subjects is wide and covers areas of science, English, modern studies, history, geography & social education syllabuses.

The databases produced by schools show a great deal of individuality in content and design. The variety of responses has provided fruitful ground for discussion of the relationship between aims (in terms of content and skills) and design of the databases. Not only the kind of information (factual/bibliographic, tasks/questions, etc.) but also the

quantity and display of information varies. This depends on the particular aims of the curriculum and the needs and abilities of particular groups of users.

The majority are bibliographic databases, designed for mixed ability groups. These contain references to information sources in school libraries and subject departments, as well as resources borrowed from School Library Service (SLS) stock. These may be exclusively print resources or a mixture of print and audio-visual, depending on availability of materials. Some examples are shown in the Appendix.

Topic databases such as Medieval Village have introduced the idea of including questions and tasks linked to specific resources (see Appendix). Medieval Village has been designed for a very structured curricular task although the librarian has included a range of related keywords which can be used by pupils in more open project work. Other examples of databases created for tasks other than project work include senior reading lists and materials for sixth year dissertations.

While the majority of bibliographic databases contain non-fiction resources, librarians in three schools have devoted time to the creation of fiction databases. The response from pupils to a junior fiction database in one school has been enthusiastic and teachers and librarian consider that the use of the computer has given "new life" to an existing scheme to encourage youngsters to read. A database being constructed with the same aims at another school will contain a mixture of fiction and non-fiction.

Some databases contain factual information. In the case of a small science database, Live, this has been combined with references to sources which can be used for further information. First year pupils were encouraged to add entries to this database, a pattern which has been followed in a number of other cases.

Purely factual databases, such as one planned for a second year science unit on Endangered species, are often seen as useful introductions to the skills of searching a database for specific information.

Most of the databases produced within MISLIP have been planned with mixed ability groups in mind. There are two notable exceptions to this which have proved of interest to teachers and librarians. The Cave database was produced for first year Learning Support pupils in a project on "cavemen". These pupils have reading ages of 7-9 years and the teacher has been concerned with encouraging and motivating them to read and to "find out" from a range of print resources. This database was designed to build on the questioning approach used in the classroom and the final format, chosen after experimenting with four different formats, encompasses the use of questions to act as reading prompts. Only one main keyword has been used in each entry and it has been repeated as a heading in the main body of the entry (Appendix).

The second important special needs focus in MISLIP has been on profoundly deaf

pupils. In one school a specialist teacher in the Support Unit for the Hearing Impaired has worked closely with the librarian on the development and testing of bibliographic databases in which care has been taken to include sources of good visual information. Information skills are particularly important life skills for the profoundly deaf and the teacher sees this approach as an attractive way of encouraging pupils to develop skills of finding and using information. Many of the keywords in the databases are based on concepts which such pupils will find particularly difficult to grasp, although the databases have been designed for areas of the curriculum which are covered by all pupils (topics in history and geography). An interesting feature here has been the development of companion databases using a dictionary program written by a senior pupil in the school. Pupils can explore the meanings of difficult words and concepts through a quiz program before going on to use the terms as keywords in their information searches.

The number and depth of keyword indexing terms varies from one database to another depending on the aims and uses for which it has been designed. There are very few keywords in Cave for Learning Support pupils while databases on topics such as Water or Central Region Information Sources (CRIS) will be expanded to cover several different subject areas and will be much larger in terms of both the number of entries and the number of keywords.

The identification of keywords is the single most important aspect of planning these databases. Fiction databases for general interest have proved more difficult to keyword from the point of view of the wide scope they offer. When fiction and nonfiction are combined in a specific context, as in English department projects in two schools, this has tended to make keywording a simpler task with recognisable themes being developed.

The use of a broad "theme" or "item" field in each record is an idea which has been adapted for databases in several schools. This introduces a loose framework of subject relationships within the database linked closely to the way the topic is viewed in the classroom.

While all databases allow keyword access many also allow author searches, although pupils are rarely observed to take this option. Titles have also been considered useful retrieval features in fiction or "reading for pleasure" databases. These basic bibliographic features are always included in records whether or not they are used as indexing terms.

Initially in schools teachers and librarians have collaborated in the planning stages although the librarian has always been in charge of the development and maintenance of databases. While the essential evaluation of pilot databases has been done jointly by librarians and teachers, the periodic checking of contents and keywords has usually been

the task of the librarian. Latterly, however, in schools which have moved further ahead in MISLIP generally, the librarian's role has shown signs of changing to that of a co-ordinator of developments and advisor. Development and routine checking have become increasingly the task of teachers.

3.2. Keyword mapping and clustering.

While databases were the focus of attention initially, it had been quite clear from the early stages of MISLIP that databases alone could have only a limited effectiveness in developing information skills. While they can motivate pupils to begin their information enquiries, and encourage clearer definition of interests, this effect is limited if not integrated within the curriculum. The microcomputer cannot replace the initial thinking processes which are so important right through to the presentation of pupils' work. Although this had been clear from Phase 1, teachers and librarians in Phase 2 began to respond fully to this need only after their first pilot use of databases. There has since been a gradual shift of emphasis away from the micro in isolation, towards a more integrated KAL approach in which the micro forms only one element.

During the second half of the project, therefore, many of the KAL activities linked to planning, searching, notemaking and summarising have been used in different teaching/learning environments with a range of age groups. Schools have begun to experiment more with techniques such as questioning, keyword mapping and clustering to help pupils define their purposes clearly before the search for information begins. A great deal of interest has been expressed from both primary and secondary schools since the publication of these ideas (7).

Questioning has been found to be a key step in finding and using information, particularly on an individual level. As a preliminary to project work, younger pupils have been encouraged to express their interests as a series of questions. They can then highlight the keywords in each question, adding a few more words if necessary, so that they have a useful reminder not only of some useful search terms but are aware of their original purposes in selecting and combining those keywords.

Keyword mapping or clustering has been used by a wide range of age groups. The mapping technique, a simple form of concept mapping (8), has proved versatile in several schools. It has been used in brainstorming a topic with younger pupils, to help them begin to group their ideas and get an overall picture of what they already know

before moving on to more research. (Fig. 2) Keyword mapping has also been used very successfully with older pupils who find it helpful both in planning an assignment and summarising and revising what they have been learning. (Fig.3).

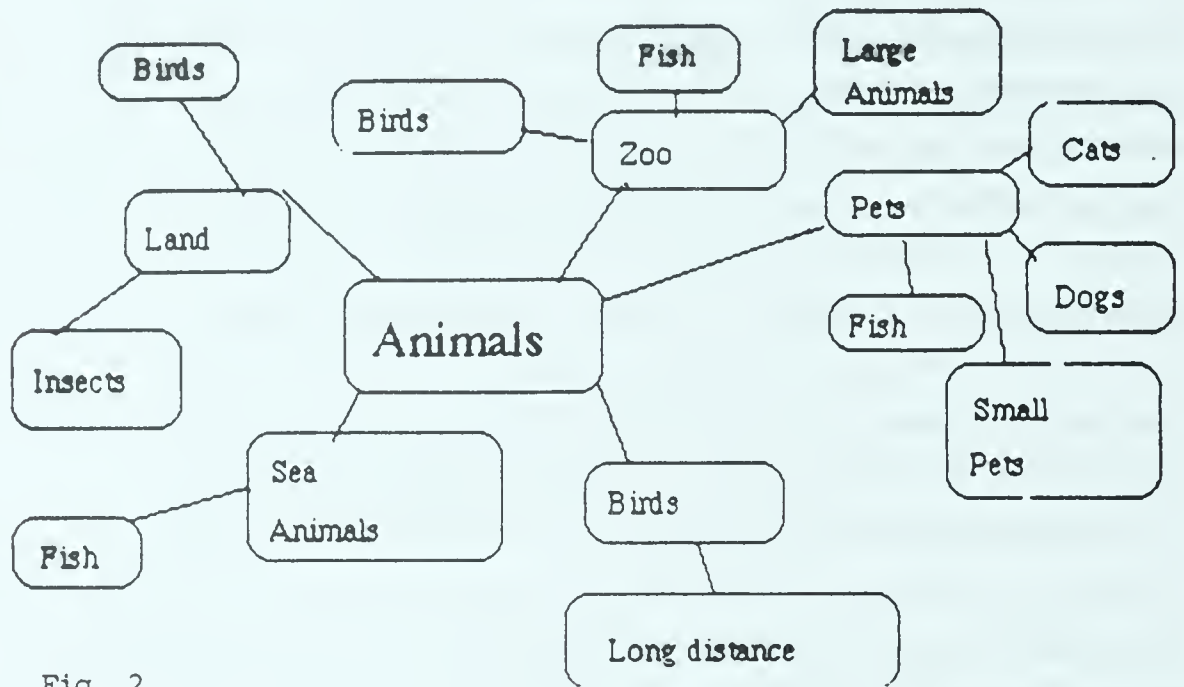


Fig. 2

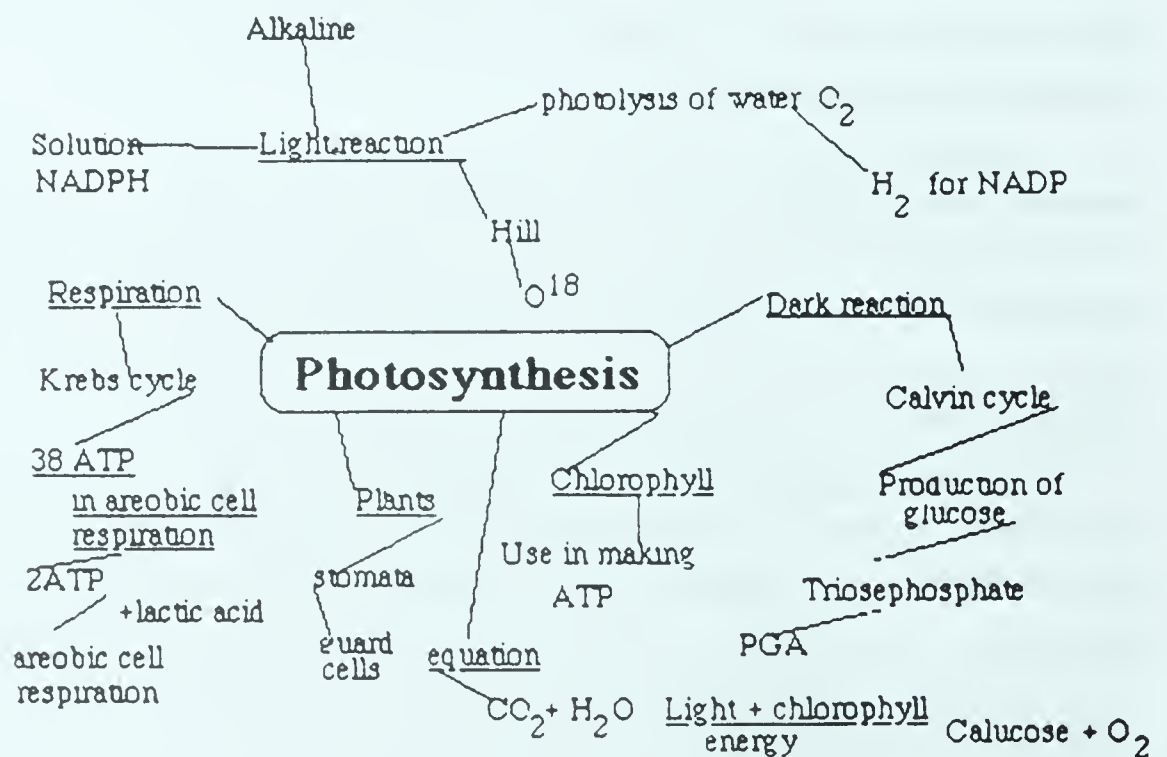


Fig 3

As tools in the information cycle, questioning and mapping provide a foundation which can be referred back to at all subsequent stages. The process of mapping out "what I know", using the map to suggest lines of enquiry and useful keyword search terms, and then adding new information at appropriate points, means that the learner can keep track of what he/she is learning and identify gaps. The process of manipulating keywords and relationships on paper can itself be a useful part of the learning process and can demonstrate the growth of knowledge in a very tangible way - an important aspect of learning to learn. In one school teachers find that pupils who use this technique to revise subjects present their work in a more relevant and organised way in exams and essays. The flexibility of this technique has been indicated by the fact that librarians and teachers have also found it a helpful way of summarising a topic when planning and indexing a database.

Individually these methods are not new but by bringing them together within an information skills context MISLIP has been able to demonstrate a meaningful link between information skills and information technology. KAL can be helpful whether the search procedure involves the use of a key-worded database or not. It has been shown in Phase 1, however, that the use of a traditional catalogue at the information retrieval stage can introduce a number of uncertainties and stumbling blocks even after careful planning. The microcomputer, on the other hand, can complement the planning approach by motivating pupils to search for new information, can provide a quick and flexible means of following up their lines of enquiry and can suggest alternative search routes and topics.

4. What have we learned ?

4. 1. KAL and information skills.

Much has been learned through observation, discussion and interview, about the effect of KAL on pupils' abilities to find and use information. This is documented in detail elsewhere (9) and it is appropriate here to dwell only on the main points which have emerged.

Pupils in general react well to the use of a microcomputer, expressing a preference for its speed, flexibility and comprehensive output of references. They have very few problems in using the micro as an information retrieval tool and teachers have often been surprised at the need for very little formal instruction. Its motivational influence extends to the very practical issue of having a ready made print-out rather than having to make notes, thus encouraging pupils to move on to the next stage.

The use of databases in a number of different contexts over a period of time can have a beneficial influence on pupils awareness of "general" and "specific" concepts and their search strategies tend to become more complex and more relevant over a period of time. However, the use of a database in isolation has only a limited effect on the long-term and wider issues involved in finding and using information. In this respect, it has become clear that only where the database is fully integrated into the curriculum, and only where the micro forms one aspect of a wider, keyword strategy, can there be a substantial influence on pupils' abilities to find and use information.

The integration of KAL within "real" curricular tasks leads generally to an increasing ability to be more selective in using resources and information. Teachers and librarians are beginning to report a positive effect on notemaking skills, a focus of much concern in information handling generally.

The use of techniques such as keyword mapping has been shown to be helpful in a group or individual level. The influence of this approach is often shown by better organisation and understanding of information in reports, essays, projects and exams. As with information retrieval, these effects become more noticeable among pupils who have used these techniques in a number of different settings and over a period of time. Teachers and librarians now view the development of KAL as a long-term project which should be given greater cross-curricular co-ordination.

The flexibility of the keyword approach has been shown particularly in the second phase of the project. This is reflected not only in the wide age range of pupils but also in the range of subject departments who have been involved. Although the starting point has usually been the micro itself involvement in the creation and use of databases has helped teachers and librarians focus on some of the fundamental problems linked to developing information skills across and within the curriculum. This has come partly from the closer collaboration between librarian and teacher which database creation necessitates and partly from the greater lever of analysis of the aims and objectives of the curricular tasks for which databases are planned.

For librarians one benefit has been the increasing involvement and understanding of the curriculum which ensues from a closer collaboration with teachers at the planning stages and a deeper involvement with pupils in classroom as well as library. One of the very practical benefits from this collaboration is the ability to judge very precisely what the resourcing needs will be and what gaps exist in current provision.

4.2 KAL and databases

The development of a large number of databases in Phase 1 and Phase 2 has made it possible to summarise some of the major decisions which are made when creating and

using databases. These have been summarised as a series of questions which have proved useful for librarians and teachers as a planning tool.

The focus of much of the planning relates to the identification of relevant keywords. It is also important to consider the amount of information needed and the presentation on the screen or on a print-out. The flexibility of even a simple database program has been shown by the imaginative use of the limited space available in each entry and file.

The microcomputer has been used in a very specific way in MISLIP. The databases produced by schools have been small (potential maximum size to date is 400 entries and most vary between 20 and 180) and designed with very specific aims and objectives. The potential for transfer to other schools has been shown to be limited in many cases although in topics such as Energy or Diseases the overlap between resources and keywords in different schools is greater.

Despite the time needed to create these databases, however, librarians and teachers have consistently expressed the intention to continue with such developments where they are appropriate. In some schools they already exist side-by-side with more general databases such as those provided by online facilities and it is not envisaged that they will be replaced by these larger databases.

4. 3 Librarians and teachers

What does all this mean for librarians and teachers?

The practical issues involved in creating and using databases revolve around time and availability of hardware - there is rarely enough of either in schools. This makes it necessary to plan timetables and tasks carefully. It leads to a questioning of priorities for both librarians and teachers. Information and information skills become the focus of greater attention in curriculum planning.

The micro itself can bring certain benefits for the library. The phrase used by MISLIP librarians on more than one occasion is that it tends to "raise the image of the library" in the eyes of pupils and teachers. This can lead to closer contact between librarians and teachers, some of whom may traditionally have had little to do with the library. Librarians see this as a useful side-effect of MISLIP which can be helpful in coping with the communications issues of information skills across the curriculum.

Subject teachers also find it helpful to have a microcomputer in the library where it can be accessed for a variety of purposes without the need to "book the computer laboratory". This inevitably leads to overdemand on the limited facilities in most school libraries and this is used by librarians as evidence for the need for more hardware. All MISLIP libraries have increased their hardware resources during the course of the

project.

One interesting benefit in having a micro in the library is that librarians are often in the position to be able to introduce the computer to teachers for whom IT is still a new and threatening development. This has been a feature of progress in all MISLIP schools to date. In some cases the librarian, in introducing the use of the computer in a very practical and relevant way, has succeeded in repairing some of the damage done by computing "experts" who can often baffle the novice.

The classification techniques of keyword mapping and clustering pose fewer practical problems but they create a different set of demands on librarians and teachers. These demands are linked to changes in roles, the development of independent learning strategies and the challenges this poses to the traditional "chalk and talk" modes of teaching. Those who have tried KAL as an approach remain enthusiastic. Keyword mapping, for example, has become very much a way of working in the classrooms of two schools and it is a mark of teachers' confidence in the approach that so much work is now being done with senior pupils working towards traditional examinations as well as younger age groups. In one school KAL has already been written into the plans for a new course for senior pupils.

For librarians in particular there are certain implications. The development of KAL tends to create an increasing interest in the library and in the use of resources which is seen as an important aim. However, this raises problems of time and space and a shift in priorities is often necessary. For MISLIP librarians the priority has been towards developing pupils' abilities to find and use resources and information in a curricular context. Routine housekeeping tasks have been given lower status and it is quite common to rely on pupil help for tasks such as shelving resources. Most feel this is far from ideal and the implications for School Library Services are plain - when the library is indeed seen as central to learning it can no longer be seen as a one-person operation. The need for more support staff, including the technical backup which is so often missing, becomes even more important.

A pattern of changing roles can be seen in schools as the librarian moves from being an initiator of KAL developments to being an advisor and collaborator. This is partly due to the very practical issues of greater demands being made on the librarian's time - in one school the librarian offers advice while the teachers develop databases. It is also clear, however, that KAL developments help teachers become more familiar with the concepts of information skills and see some possible strategies for their development. Their role changes, as a consequence, from a more passive collaboration with librarians to that of initiators.

While roles change, librarians continue to play a central part as co-ordinators and

advisors with a unique overview of events in different subjects departments. This is crucial to the development of information skills across the curriculum. In many ways the greater active involvement of teachers in information skills development creates a greater need for this overview and it is the librarian who is often able to fill the gap.

The most important implication for librarians, therefore, is the need to adopt a very flexible role in initiatives such as the use of microcomputers and the development of informations skills. She/he is in a position to see the overall needs of a number of individuals and, by responding in different ways, can be a force for change at a fundamental level in a school., Developments such as KAL can allow the librarian to lead in the use of technology and the development of skills, in a way which is relevant not only to pupils as learners but also to teachers.

The fear of technology is still real, as is the worry and uncertainty of "information" and "information skills". There is a pressure now on teachers to address these issues in their own classrooms as well as in the library but there is still a worry about what these terms mean and how information skills can be "taught". For MISLIP schools, a keyword approach to learning has provided one way of looking at these issues - a useful framework which can raise as many questions as it can answer.

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5. See for example:
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APPENDIX

Examples of entries in databases

1 Diseases : second year biology

Durrant M; Eat Well and stay healthy; 1977. Book at 613.2 DUR.

KEYWORD.....FOOD POISONING

PASTEUR

PASTEURIZATION

SALMONELLA

TYPHOID FEVER

LOCATION.....MOD

2 Water : second year science

SOURCE Water. A video cassette. You may use the TV VCR in the library.

ITEM..... DESTINATION

KEYWORDS..... BRINE

EVAPORATION

LOCATION.....Video Cassette

3 Cave : First year Learning Support pupils with low reading age

TOOLS

What tools did they have?

How did they make tools?

McCORD A. EARLY MAN PAGES 22-23

KEYWORD..... TOOLS

SHELF NUMBER..... 573.3

4 Medieval Village: First year history

A serf was a Villain; describe their life. What would you have like and disliked about it?

ITEM.....VILLAIN

KEYWORDS.....FEUDAL

SERF

SOURCE.....Medieval Times

p40-43

Medieval Serf

p4-5

LOCATION.....940.1



THE TRAINING OF TEACHER-LIBRARIANS IN MALAYSIA

By Wong Kim Siong

Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to present an account of the efforts that have been made in Malaysia in providing in-service training to teacher-librarians since the early 1960s. This account includes an examination of the types of courses offered, the trend and emphasis in terms of the course content, and the significant developments related to the provision of such courses at different periods. The 1960s is used as a starting point for discussion because it was during this period that official efforts were initiated to provide library training for teachers. This presentation is made in the personal capacity of the writer who has been closely involved in the school library in-service training program, since 1962.

Educational System

During the British colonial period, schools using English as the medium of instruction existed alongside the vernacular Malay, Chinese and Tamil schools. However, after the country's independence in 1957, the English-medium schools were converted in stages into the National Schools where Bahasa Malaysia, the national language, is used as the medium of instruction. At present, at the primary level, besides the National Schools, there are also the government-aided National Type Chinese Primary Schools and National Type Tamil Primary Schools. At the secondary school level, all government and government aided schools use Bahasa Malaysia as the medium of instruction. However, English is taught as a compulsory second language in all primary and secondary schools. In 1960, there were about 5,000 elementary schools with a pupil population of nearly 140,000 and about 386 secondary schools with some 157,000 students. Today, the figures stand as follows: 6776 primary schools with about 2 million pupils, and 1219 secondary schools with approximately 1.3 million students.

The educational system in Malaysia is centrally administered by the federal government. All primary and secondary government and government-aided schools, irrespective of the language medium, adopt the same curriculum designed by the Ministry of Education. In the 13 states and the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur, the educational

administration is the responsibility of the State Education Departments which are considered as branch offices of the Ministry of Education. Each State Education Department consists of a corp of professional and non-professional staff headed by the State Director of Education. Since 1982, all states, except Malacca, Perlis and the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur, have also established district education offices within their respective states in order to provide more effective supervision of the schools.

School Library Situation

In the fifties and early sixties, school libraries were known to exist, but their conditions varied greatly in terms of quality and quantity of their book stock and services. The main deficiencies, as pointed out by Lim in his general survey,¹ were the inadequate number of books, particularly of reference books, because of the shortage of funds, and the lack of proper accomodation mainly due to the lack of space for classrooms. It was estimated that only about a dozen secondary schools at that time had an adequate book collection. Similar observations regarding the inadequacies of the school libraries were also made in the survey report by Margaret Walker in 1964.² Of the 234 National-Type English Medium Schools surveyed, about 65% had no proper centralized library facilities; and about 5% of them had no library room at all. In the national survey study conducted in 1977,³ the uneven provisions of the library facilities between the primary and secondary schools were highlighted. It was found that about 85.0% of the secondary schools had proper centralized library facilities, compared to only 31.8% of the primary schools. The median number of books among the secondary schools was about 4,000 while for the primary schools, the median number was between 800 - 1000 books. The survey findings also reveal that in the majority of the day-schools the existing library facilities were not effectively utilized.

Besides the problems of insufficient book stock, under utilization and lack of proper library facilities, the shortage of trained teacher-librarians has also been a major area of concern among the schools. However, over the years, the shortage of trained teacher-librarians has become increasingly less acute as a result of the in-service and pre-service library training programs implemented by the Ministry of Education. The types of library courses provided and the significant developments related to the provisions for training teacher-librarians since the 1960s will be examined in the sections that follow.

The 1960s

In the fifties and early sixties, there was a near total absence of trained teacher-librarians in the country.⁴ This situation is understandable since prior to 1962

there were no courses on school librarianship available locally. The only body known to have organized occasional library workshops was the Malayan Library Group, and, later the Persatuan Perpustakaan Tanah Melayu (The Malayan Library Association). Hence for the majority of the teacher-librarians, especially those serving in schools located far away from the main cities like Kuala Lumpur, Penang and Singapore, there was hardly any opportunity to get guidance or training in library management.⁵ This lack of trained teacher-librarians, and the inadequate library provisions in schools, had been a matter of concern to the library profession at that time. The Malayan Library Group, in its memorandum to the government, had urged, among other things, that special attention be given to the development of adequately stocked and effectively managed libraries in schools. It was in response to this need for trained library personnel, which is a pre-requisite for effective library management, that the first one year full-time course in school librarianship was introduced by the Ministry of Education at the Training Institute (S.T.T.I.) Kuala Lumpur, in 1962. This course was made possible through the efforts of the Persatuan Perpustakaan Tanah Melayu with the cooperation of the United States Information Service. A special grant under the Educational Exchange Program of the U. S. Department of State was obtained to finance an American School Library Lecturer, Nelle McCalla, to conduct the course.

This course was attended by 14 qualified teachers, including one from Brunei. The aim of the course was "to enable the participants to acquire sufficient library training to organize and develop school libraries within the designated area and to plan short courses to train other teachers to assist in the development of libraries in schools."⁶ The curriculum consisted of six subject areas which were studied two for each term, over a three-term period. The subject areas were:

- (a) Introduction to school librarianship;
- (b) Selection of library materials;
- (c) Classification;
- (d) Cataloguing;
- (e) Reference work; and
- (f) Administration of the school library.

In addition, there was also a two-hour lecture per week on the use of audio-visual aids given by a lecturer from the Audio-Visual Aids Department. The participants were evaluated

on the basis of their course assignments, including a long essay of about 5,000 words, and of a written test held at the end of the year.

In terms of school library development in Malaysia, this one year course at the

S.T.T.I. is significant, not because of its being the first of its kind in the country, but because it was from this batch of teacher-librarians that there grew a nucleus of key library personnel who, in subsequent years, were responsible for planning and conducting a series of in-service courses in various parts of the country.⁷ It was a matter of regret that this course was discontinued in 1963; otherwise more teacher-librarians with in-depth training could have been produced. It was only twelve years later, in 1975, that a similar one-year course was restarted in the S.T.T.I.

After the departure of Nelle McCalla the services of two other American library advisers were made available to the Ministry of Education. They were Margaret Walker who was attached to the Teacher-Training Division from May 1963 to April 1964 and her successor, Marion B. Weise, attached to the Schools Division from May 1964 to March 1965. A major task of these two library advisers was to plan and implement the in-service library training program for teachers. Abdul Rashid Ismail, a lecturer attached to the Language Institute, Kuala Lumpur, who had just obtained his professional library qualification in London in 1963, worked closely with both the American advisers.

The period between 1963 and 1965 saw a beehive of activities in the school library field when a series of short courses were conducted in all the major towns in Malaysia. These courses, conducted with the assistance of eight of the S.T.T.I. trained teacher-librarians,⁸ were of three main types:

- (a) Introductory Course on School Library Organisation,
- (b) Advanced Course on Library Organisation and Utilization,
- (c) Refresher Course for the Library Key Personnel, including the S.T.T.I. trained Teacher-Librarians.

The duration of these courses varied from a few days to a few weeks, conducted mainly during the school vacation. All these courses were conducted in English with emphasis on practical work and group discussions. From December 1963 to January 1964 a total of about 646 primary and secondary school teachers, including a few heads of schools and education officers attended the courses. Of this number of participants only about 226 were from the primary schools.⁹ During this period some useful documents were produced, one on school library organisation and the other, a guideline for organizing in-service courses.¹⁰

When Marion Weise left in March 1965, Abdul Rashid Ismail continued his association with the Ministry of Education and assumed the responsibility of planning and co-ordinating the in-service library training program. By the end of 1964 approval was given by the Ministry of Education to implement the recommendation made in previous

years to include Library Utilization as a compulsory course in the Regional Training Center Program. For this purpose a total of 46 part-time lecturers, including the S.T.T.I.. trained teacher-librarians, were selected to give lectures at the various training centers. There were 33 centers with 111 units or classes to be taught in English and 78 units to be taught in the Malay medium. In centers where there were no part-time lecturers for the Malay medium, taped lessons were used instead.¹¹ The Library Utilization Course, consisting of 20-hour lectures, was part of the Education Course. It covered topics such as the aims and functions of the School Library, study skills, introduction to the classification system, types and use of reference-books and the techniques of reading. In the teacher-training colleges, besides the Library Utilization Course, an elective course on Library Science was also recommended. However, until the end of 1968 only a very few colleges made provision for this course.¹² It was not until the seventies, with the intake of more Library Science lecturers, that both the above courses were implemented in all the Teacher- Training Colleges.

From 1965 to 1970 most of the school library key personnel were preoccupied with the preparation and teaching of the Library Utilization Course in the Regional Training Centers and Teacher- Training Colleges. Only a limited allocation was made available for conducting other in-service library courses.¹³ During this period in-service courses in Audio-Visual Aids were also organised from time to time by the Audio-Visual Aids Section of the Ministry of Education for teachers who were in charge of audio-visual aids in their respective schools.

The 1960s is a significant period as it witnessed the introduction of School Librarianship as an area of study for Malaysian teachers. It was also a period when foundations were laid for future school library development in Malaysia. Many of those who served in the Teacher-Training Colleges as Library Science lecturers in subsequent years, had their initial training in the sixties. The expertise and unstinting efforts of the three American school library specialists and Abdul Rashid Ismail were of immense value in promoting School Librarianship and the school library movement in general. Through their dedication and total commitment, they had stimulated a great deal of interest towards the school library among the teachers and heads of schools who came into contact with them. The recommendations they made and the ideas they disseminated contributed significantly to creating an awareness among the schools and those in authority of the important role the school library can play in achieving quality education.

The 1970s

During the seventies the in-service library training program was intensified to cover more schools including the primary schools. This was necessitated by a number of

developments resulting from wider support and recognition from the authorities concerned. Among the significant developments was the provision since 1974 of an annual grant to all primary and secondary schools for the purchase of library books. In addition, secondary schools built after 1976 were equipped with a library room and a basic book collection. This provision was later extended to all newly established primary schools as well. Another significant development was the establishment in 1973 of the School Library Unit in the Schools Division of the Ministry of Education. This Unit was given the responsibility of planning, implementing co-ordinating and supervising the school library development program. At the same time, state school library organisers were appointed in stages to serve in the various State Education Departments.¹⁴

With the provision of library facilities and library book grant, the need to provide training to teacher-librarians became more apparent and urgent. Consequently, approval was given by the Treasury to provide more funds for conducting short courses and to start a one-year course at the S.T.T.I.

The one-year full-time course was started in 1975 in response to the need for preparing teacher-librarians who were to be appointed as library organisers, key personnel and lecturers in the teacher-training colleges. The aim of the course, as stated in the syllabus, was to "produce teacher-librarians who were both material specialists as well as mediators in the teaching-learning process". Eight papers were offered, including the following:

- (a) School library users and their needs;
- (b) School library resources;
- (c) School library utilization;
- (d) School library management;
- (e) Classification and Cataloguing of Library Resources;
- (f) School library practice;
- (g) Basic research methods; and
- (h) Other library agencies and their services.

Evaluation was based on course work (30%) including special assignments in the form of long essays, bibliographies and field reports; research report (20%); progress shown in the library to which the participant was attached (20%); and formal examination at the end of the year (30%). Compared to the one-year course in 1962, the above course started in

1975 was wider in scope and academic in content. It incorporated new areas of study pertaining to basic research methods, the information agencies and needs of library users that were absent in the previous course. On the whole, the course work was rather

intensive and demanding, as the participants had to complete many assignments throughout the year.

In addition to the one-year course at the S.T.T.I., the short library course initiated in the sixties continued to be implemented in the seventies. However, between 1970 and 1975, due to limited funds and personnel, not many library courses were held.¹⁵ It was only after 1976 that this short course training program was intensified and conducted at the state and district levels. This program followed a new syllabus designed to provide training to participants in two stages, namely

- (a) Preliminary Course lasting for 35 hours, and
- (b) Continuation Course lasting for 45 hours.

In the Preliminary Course there were seven areas of study, including selection of materials, library administration and organisation, library utilization and planning of physical facilities. In the Continuation Course, the same areas of study were repeated except the topic on planning of physical facilities. In both courses practical work was emphasized.

In terms of content, the new syllabus did not differ very much from the old one adopted for courses prior to 1976. It incorporated many of the topics listed in the old syllabus. The only difference was in the duration of training. While the courses following the old syllabus lasted between 40 to 70 hours for a period between 8 to 14 days at a stretch, the new syllabus made provision for a longer duration of training lasting 80 hours in two stages. The reason for lengthening the duration was to provide adequate time for teaching and practical work, since the lack of time had been the main complaint of many participants in the past. By providing training in two stages, it would make the courses less strenuous for the participants so that teaching and learning could become more effective.¹⁶

The new syllabus makes provision for two types of courses: residential and non-residential. The decision to hold a course for a particular group of participants either on a residential or non-residential basis depended on a number of factors related to the travelling distance of the participants to the training center, and the availability of suitably qualified lecturers. The non-residential Preliminary Courses were held mainly during the school term when the participants had to come for training twice a week on Fridays and Saturdays for four successive weeks; while participants of the Continuation Course had to come twice a week for five successive weeks.

Three categories of instructors were involved in conducting these courses. They were:

- (a) lecturers in library science at the teacher-training colleges;
- (b) teacher-librarians who had received one-year full-time training at the S.T.T.I.;
- and
- (c) teacher-librarians who had attended advanced in-service course for more than 100 hours.

Nearly all the courses were organized and co-ordinated by the state library organisers in the respective states. The amount of money allocated for this program for the period from 1976 to 1980 was about MR 550,000. By 1980, a total of 4611 teacher-librarians had attended the Preliminary Course, and 884 of them had attended the Continuation Course.¹⁷

Apart from the short courses mentioned above, a series of exposure courses and briefings lasting for 5 to 10 hours were also introduced for senior assistants and heads of schools in the various states. In some smaller states almost all the heads of schools had attended such briefing sessions.

In the late seventies, with the increased intake of library science lecturers, the teaching of Library Utilization and Management Course became possible in all the eleven teacher-training colleges in the country. This course consisted of a 15-hour program for the first year students and a 30-hour program for the second year students. At the Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, a 20-hour course on School Librarianship was also offered on an elective basis for students undergoing the Diploma of Education Course.

The 1980s

Since the beginning of 1980, the concept of the school library as a resource center providing book and non-book materials has been increasingly accepted and practised among the primary and secondary schools. This trend is encouraged to some extent by the successful implementation of the School Library Utilization Project from 1981 - 1984 which aimed, among other things, to enable the selected schools to develop their existing libraries into resource centers.¹⁸ In line with this new trend, the library organizers and the educational media officers in every State Education Department have been brought together under the same Unit, known as the Educational Technology Unit, created since 1982. This new organisational set-up facilitates closer co-ordination between the book library service and the educational media service, which previously operated under different administrations. To reflect this integration of the two services, the Ministry of Education, in an administrative circular, has advised all schools to adopt the new term

"School Resource Center" (Pusat Sumber Sekolah) to substitute the traditional term "School Library". (Perpustakaan Sekolah). Besides, it is also recommended that the term "Resource Center Teacher" be used to designate the teacher in charge of the School Resource Center.¹⁹

As a result of this new development , modification are made in terms of content and implementation to the existing in-service library training program. Courses are designed to meet the needs of the following categories of teachers who are entrusted with the responsibility of managing the School Resource Center:

- (a) Trained teacher-librarians - requiring a course in the organisation and utilization of audio-visual aids;
- (b) Trained audio-visual aids teachers - requiring a course in Library Organisation and Management, and
- (c) Untrained Resource Center Teachers - requiring a course in Educational Technology, incorporating School Librarianship and Management of Audio-Visual Aids.

The duration of the course for the first two categories of teachers is 30 hours each, and for the third category, the duration is 70 hours in two stages following the pattern of the Preliminary and Continuation courses initiated in the seventies. In recent years, because of the economic recession resulting in limited budget, the number of in-service courses has been reduced. To meet the training needs of the Resource Center teachers, many State Education Departments are turning to other agencies, including the School Library Associations and the State Governments, for financial assistance to organise the in-service courses. For example, in the State of Pahang, money has been obtained from the State Government for a School Resource Center Project, including the provision of in-service training for teachers and heads of schools in 200 schools. In the states of Kelantan, Trengganu, Pahang and Kedah, in-service courses in Educational Technology are provided at the State Educational Resource Centers established since 1983.²⁰

The trend towards Educational Technology is also reflected in the syllabus for teacher trainees in the teacher-training colleges in the country. In 1980 the syllabus for the Library Utilization and Management Course was revised to include the Audio-Visual Aids Course under the Teaching Technology System Course. However, a large part of the content in the old courses still remains the core in the new syllabus; the difference is only in terms of arrangement and emphasis. The aim of this new course is to provide the teacher trainees with up-to-date knowledge of the different types of educational resources and with the skills for organising, managing and using these resources in teaching. "It is

hoped that with the skills and knowledge acquired in this course, the teacher-trainees will be able to perform their teaching duties and organize the Library Resource Center effectively."²¹ This course lasts for 90 hours and includes the following nine areas of study:

- (a) Basic concepts of educational technology;
- (b) Communication;
- (c) Systems approach;
- (d) Types of teaching-learning resources;
- (e) Use of educational resources;
- (f) Acquisition and selection;
- (g) Teaching-learning materials;
- (h) Organization and management of the School Resource Center;
- (i) Services and utilization of the School Resource Center.

In 1985 the above course was again revised to suit the new semester system introduced in the colleges. This new syllabus differs from the 1980 syllabus only in the following respects:

- (a) the aim of the course is limited to enabling the trainees to acquire skills for producing, organizing and using the educational resources in different teaching-learning situations;
- (b) the course duration is reduced to 76 hours, spread over four semesters; and
- (c) a new topic entitled "Learning Skills" is introduced.

This course is managed by lecturers from the Library Science Department and the Educational Technology Department in the respective colleges.

For the one-year full-time course in School Librarianship, the old syllabus was also revised in 1985 to suit the new semester system. No major changes are made in terms of content except for the reduction of the number of papers from 8 to 6 with the inclusion of the topic on reading and reading material for children and juveniles. At present the teaching staff of the Library Science Department at the S.T.T.I. consists of 6 lecturers, all, except one, with professional library qualifications obtained overseas. The intake of students for the one-year course is 25 per year. Since 1975 a total of 300 qualified teachers have attended this course, and the majority of them are absorbed into the Teacher-Training Colleges as Library Science lecturers.

Concluding Remarks

About twenty-five years ago, School librarianship was a relatively unknown subject among schools in Malaysia, and trained teacher-librarians were almost non-existent. But with the introduction of the in-service library training courses since 1962, the situation has changed. To-date, an estimated 8,000 qualified teachers have attended library in-service courses of various kinds. (This figure excludes those who have received pre-service training library courses in the Teacher-Training Colleges). Of the total number, 300 have received one-year full-time training and about 30 have gone overseas for further training. In addition, the majority of the Heads of Schools have also been exposed to School Librarianship through briefings and workshops conducted at the state and district levels. All this has contributed immensely to creating an awareness among the teachers and Heads of Schools of the importance of the school library. This has also made the establishment of more and more school libraries a reality, although the degree of effectiveness of the library services provided varies among the schools.

As in any other training program, the effectiveness of the school library in-service training program depends on a number of factors, including proper planning, adequate funding and the availability of qualified lecturers. Besides, the success of the program also depends on the attitude and motivation of the participants and the extent to which they are able to put into practice what they have learnt from the training courses. For this purpose, the availability of incentives and career prospect within the school library system are relevant and important. How to maintain and improve the effectiveness of the existing training programs, and how to upgrade professionalism among those who have received training, either in school librarianship or in Educational Technology, are an important considerations for the present and the future.

Footnotes.

1. Lim Huck Tee. Libraries in West Malaysia and Singapore. Kuala Lumpur, University of Malaya, 1970, page 122.
2. Walker, Margaret. School library development in perspective. Kuala Lumpur, Ministry of Education, 1964.
3. Winslade, B.A.J. Blueprint for school library development in Malaysia. Kuala Lumpur, Persatuan Perpustakaan Malaysia, 1979.
4. Lim Huck Tee, op cit. page 122.
5. The only exception was the few Methodist Mission Schools. For many years, in the fifties and early sixties, the Methodist Mission Board had appointed professional librarians to provide advice and help for starting and re-organizing libraries in the Methodist schools.
6. McCalla, Nelle. "Library Science Course at Specialist Teachers' Training Institute, 1962" *Malayan Library Journal*, 2:115-118, April 1962.
7. In later years many of these 1962 S.T.T.I, trained teacher-librarians went for further studies. Three of them served as lecturers in teacher-training colleges. Another three were given positions of some responsibility; they are: Martha Ratnam, former Head of Library Science Department, S.T.T.I.; Wong Kim Siong, former Head of School Libraries Unit, Schools Division, Ministry of Education; and Dr. Leong Yin Ching, present Head of Department of Pedagogy., Faculty of Education, University of Malaya.
8. In some of the courses and workshops, selected heads of schools were also invited to participate in the panel discussions.
9. Wiese, Marion B. Report on school library progress. Kuala Lumpur, Ministry of Education, 1965, page 21.
10. Walker, Margaret. School Library Manual. Kuala Lumpur, Ministry of

Education, 1964 (Malay edition, translated by Syed Ahmad Ali, 1967).

Weise, M.B. Instruction manual for advanced school library workshop - Series I: School library utilization. Kuala Lumpur, Ministry of Education. 1964. (Mimeographed)

11. Malaysia, Ministry of Education. "Regional training centers for teacher training 1965: Library Utilization Course (Compulsory)". (Appendix to an administrative circular).
12. In 1968, it was reported that the Library Science Elective Course was offered officially only in Language Institute, Kuala Lumpur, and unofficially in S.T.T.I. and Malayan Teachers' College, Penang. None was offered at the other colleges. See: Language Institute. Minutes of meeting of Library Science lecturers, held on 9th March, 1968.
13. After the untimely death of Abdul Rashid Ismail in 1968, Martha Rathnam, who was appointed as lecturer at the S.T.T.I., helped to co-ordinate the organisation of the in-service library courses.
14. The State Library Organisers were appointed in stages between 1972 to 1977. During that period, nine American Peace Corp members and one German volunteer were also attached as library advisers to the various State Education Departments. For a description of the functions of the School Libraries Unit and the State Library Organizers, see: Wong Kim Siong. "Development of school libraries in Malaysia" in International handbook of contemporary developments in librarianship, edited by M.M. Jackson. Greenwood Press, 1980.
15. Between 1973 - 1975, the courses were held mainly for the teacher-librarians involved in the UNICEF Primary School Library Pilot Project. See: Wong Kim Siong. The UNICEF Primary School Library Pilot Project: an evaluative study, a thesis submitted to the University of Malaya in partial fulfilment of a Master Degree in Education, 1978.
16. Wong Kim Siong. In-service courses on School Librarianship: programme outline and approach to evaluation. Kuala Lumpur, Ministry of Education, 1980. page 7.

17. Wong Kim Siong, op. cit. page 20.
18. For a description and evaluation of this Project, see: Malaysia, Kementerian Pelajaran. Laporan mengenai pelaksanaan Projek Menggalakkan Penggunaan Perpustakaan Unit Perpustakaan Sekolah. Kuala Lumpur, 1984..
19. For the primary schools this integration is deemed necessary to avoid duplication in the provision of teaching aids and reading materials needed for the implementation of the New Primary School Curriculum since 1982. This new curriculum gives emphasis to the use of a variety of reading materials and educational aids for the teaching of basic skills in the 3R.
20. These four State Educational Resource Centers were built under a special World Bank Loan Project. Each Center is equipped with facilities including seminar rooms, hostel, library and science laboratory and media production workshop. For a description and evaluation of these Centers, see: University of Malaya. Faculty of Education. An evaluation of the Educational Resource Centers. Kuala Lumpur, 1985.
21. Kementerian Pelajaran, Bahagian Pendidikan Guru. Latihan perguruan asas tiga tahun: Teknologi Sistem Pengajaran. 1980 (mimeographed).

PANEL Presentations:

**Children's Authors and
Publishing in Iceland**



PRODUCTION OF CURRICULUM MATERIALS IN ICELAND

Ingibjörg Ásgeirsdóttir

Námsgagnastofnun, or the National Centre for Educational Materials (NCEM), was established in 1979. It was an amalgamation of two earlier establishments, The State Educational Publishing Company and The State Educational Film Library. It is divided into three divisions, one of finance and administration, another for the development and production of curriculum materials and the third for sales and distribution. Apart from this, there is a Teachers Centre within Námsgagnastofnun.

Námsgagnastofnun has a board of executives which is responsible for all major decisions concerning publications. The seven members of the board are representatives from the Association of Head Teachers, the association of Teachers at the compulsory school-level (two members), secondary school teachers, The University College of Education, superintendents of schools and the Ministry of Education.

The day to day administration of Námsgagnastofnun, however, is in the hands of its director, Ásgeir Guðmundsson, and three executive directors.

This year Námsgagnastofnun plans to publish approx. 130 titles, of which 43 are new.

The materials are distributed to the schools free of charge but allocations are according to a quota based on the number of pupils enrolled in each school.

NÁMSGAGNASTOFNUN is almost the only producer of curriculum materials for compulsory schooling in Iceland. This, of course, gives it great responsibilities, since it means it has to produce materials suitable to all schools, whatever their size, location, teaching methods or general view on education. What makes this possible at all, is the fact that Iceland has a centrally controlled curriculum. The basic curriculum planning takes place at the Ministry of Education and the Ministry issues curriculum guidelines in all compulsory subjects. These guidelines are also the framework in which we must work at Námsgagnastofnun, all the materials that we produce, must be in accordance with these curriculum guidelines. But although this makes our tasks possible,

it is certainly not enough to make it an easy one. There are still a number of choices and decisions to be made as to what kind of materials Námsgagnastofnun should be producing and what should have priority. The Ministry's guidelines are a broad framework which leave both the schools and producers of curriculum materials with considerable freedom for interpretation and further planning.

According to law, Námsgagnastofnun's main task is to: "provide Icelandic schools with curriculum materials that are of the highest quality".

Námsgagnastofnun takes a number of steps in order to work towards this goal and to try to ensure that good, useful materials are being produced. A few examples are in order:

Firstly, members of staff in the Department of Curriculum Material Development work in close cooperation with the Ministry's school inspectors. They provide us with information about the needs of the schools and give us feedback on how the materials are being used. They are in charge of the try-out of new materials and act as consultants when future publications and revision of old ones are being planned.

Secondly, we try to keep well informed of curriculum development in general and especially of new development in the design of curriculum material.

Thirdly, we have drawn up a list of certain basic principles to be kept in mind when materials are designed, a checklist for the authors and the editors. The checklist may give some idea of what we are trying to achieve.

CHECKLIST

The aims of the materials, target audience and situation should be clearly stated in either pupil or teacher material.

The content of the materials should be well organized and it should be clear what basic assumptions about knowledge and education, underlie the way the materials have been structured.

Language and use of concepts must be suitable for the age-group for which the materials are designed.

The materials must give correct and up-to-date information.

Situations and problems should be described impartially and different viewpoints should be presented where appropriate.

The materials must be free from any kind of bias (race, sex, religion etc.).

The materials should have a variety of exercises and tasks for the pupils and they should be given a chance to work with concepts and information that have been presented, either individually or in cooperation with others.

The materials should point the pupils to other resources of information and

encourage independent problem-solving.

Instructions to pupils must be clear so that they know exactly what they are expected to do.

The materials should be attractive in presentation. Illustrations should be chosen and placed so that they support the text. Where they are informative, they (as the text) must give clear and correct information.

Where appropriate, the materials should have indexes of subjects, illustrations, maps and graphs etc.

Such a list, and others like it, must of course be open to change and development and must be evaluated regularly in order to be of any real value to the people who use it. If that is done, I believe it can be of help, especially since many of our curriculum writers only write one or two books and so they all have to learn from their experience as their work progresses.

And that brings us to one of our most difficult tasks - which is finding people to write curriculum materials. Jerome Bruner once suggested that "a curriculum should be prepared jointly by the subject matter expert, the teacher, and the psychologist" (J.S. Bruner 1966). I believe he is right, in demanding expertise both in the subject matter and in matters concerning teaching and learning and that this combination is what we must always look for in possible curriculum writers. It may not matter however, whether we find these qualities in one person or a group of people, as long as they come together in the design of all curriculum materials, - be it a tiny booklet or a large curriculum project.

Another difficulty that Námsgagnastofnun is continually faced with, although a completely different one, is the financial constraints within which it has to work. The yearly allocations to Námsgagnastofnun are always considerably lower than the amount which has been applied for. This means, that every year production-plans have to be reduced, work on materials that we know to be badly needed in the schools has to be put aside and old material has to be reprinted only because it is cheaper than designing new one.

There are therefore, too many outdated materials in use in the schools, materials that give information which is no longer correct, and materials that are not based on what we now know about child development, motivation, and the processes of learning.

But fortunately there are also both old and new materials of which we can be quite proud.

What I want to show you now, are examples of new materials that might be of interest to you, they have not been tried yet, so no one knows yet how useful they will turn out to be.

The importance of study skills is now being increasingly accepted by classroom

teachers and authors of curriculum materials and this is just beginning to show in some new material. This must surely influence the work of the school librarians, who, I believe have been aware of the importance of this area of study for a long time.

An example that might interest you is to be found in the new Danish materials that are being written. In the textbook, the pupils are given references in each of the 15 chapters to other books on the subjects that have been handled in the previous chapter. These are both information books and literature. This of course does no more than make a certain kind of work possible, it is up to the teacher to use it successfully, firstly by encouraging the pupils to do some further work in areas that have been of interest to them and secondly, by cooperating with the school librarian in making sure that at least some of these books are available in the school library.

Another example that I want to mention, is a little work-book that has just been published, called the "Bookcollector." The aim with the Bookcollector is to raise childrens awareness when they are reading stories, to teach them to ask questions about the text, and yet to realize that they are seldom looking for one and only correct answer, to use as a motivating force the fact that many children are great collectors, and to give them a chance to express themselves about what they read. These are high-flying aims for such a little thing!

Many of the ideas in the Bookcollector have been around, what is new is the way they have been collected to form a whole, something you can keep and come back to. One hopes of course, that it may increase some children's interest in reading and help to turn them into very young literary critics.

The exciting area in the development of curriculum materials these days, is of course around the computers. It is obvious that computer software is going to form an increasingly large part of curriculum materials in the future.

We have tried to keep an eye on the development that has been taking place in other countries. The first educational computer programs that were produced, weren't very educational, or that at least seems to be the general conclusion of those who have evaluated some of them. But they are certainly getting better and more interesting. We have recently examined some English teaching programs that we found very promising and I hope some of them will be tried in a few schools next winter.

Some experimentation in this area has also been taking place here, the first computer program has been published and two new ones are being designed.

This is an area that concerns all of us that work in the field of education, be it in the school library, in the production of curriculum materials, or in classroom teaching. It is up to us to find ways in which this new development will benefit the pupils the most. We must make sure that the programs themselves are educationally worthwhile and that they

are used in a manner that actually meets the needs of the pupils.

I quoted Bruner earlier, his 22 year old statement that "a curriculum should be prepared jointly by the subject matter expert, the teacher and the psychologist." I want to end by quoting Tim O'Shea who is professor of information technology and education at the Open University in England. The quotation is from last week's Times Educational Supplement (17.7.1987) and he is talking about the design of educational computer software when he says:

"Each new system will take many years of high level specialist time requiring people who have the necessary knowledge and expertise in the subject, in artificial intelligence, in software development, in cognitive psychology and in education."

It seems that basically the demands made in the design of curriculum materials haven't changed very much over the past twenty years or so, all we have to add now is the computer specialist!



REFLECTIONS ON CHILDREN'S LITERATURE A PANEL DISCUSSION

Guðrún Helgadóttir:

Do children need literature?

I suppose all of us agree that literature forms a vital part of human relations within the literate world, a necessary extension of each individual's personal experience, a guidepost for a man out of his isolation towards a universal human experience, a source of imagination and an instrument of the spoken word and thus of human thought itself. Any language which isn't nourished by the creative and stimulating force of literature is bound to become stagnated, if not to perish.

A saying has it that the child is the father of the man and similarly it is true that children learn to speak the kind of language they listen to. Therefore it is self-evident that few people have as much need of good literature as little children whose eyes are opening to the eccentricities and complexity of human nature. The mind of a child is pure and unspoiled and for that very reason, we, the grown-ups carry a heavy responsibility for whatever is admitted into that mind. There can hardly be any doubt that the material which is read for children and what they read themselves, has a considerable influence on both their linguistic development and their development in general. I guess we can all remember books that changed our personalities directly and affected our lives in a number of ways for quite some time.

Some of these books were written for grown-ups, others for children. To this very day I feel as if I know Lapland quite well because of Jon Fricsh's book about Laila, and the mountain districts of Switzerland from Johanna Spyri's stories about Heidi. These books opened up a new and previously unknown world, not to mention stories like Gulliver's Travels, Robinson Crusoe, Alice in Wonderland and Uncle Tom's Cabin, which cannot as easily be placed within the absolutely awkward classification of what is defined as children's literature and what isn't. We wouldn't be the same people without this literature. Children most definitely need literature, good literature.

What then should literature for children be like?

We must make the same demands to it concerning construction, style, artistic story-telling, imagination and good language as we do to any other literary work. Of course the subject matter and the language must be suited to the understanding of a child, and in this respect writers are often at a disadvantage as they are usually far removed from their own childhood, from its ideas and linguistic habits. And childrens' books that children don't want to read or listen to are of course completely worthless as such, even though the grown-ups may find them good literature. On the other hand, it is equally important that grown-ups are able to enjoy children's literature, as children find few things as pleasant as sharing the enjoyment of a good book with the grown-ups and knowing that grown-up people also take pleasure in reading it. I do believe that part of the answer to this is the fact that this makes a child feel respected; it feels that it is being taken seriously as a person.

Another thing is that I don't think we are doing children any favour by oversimplifying the complex nature of human life in children's literature. However, a writer has an obvious duty to deal gently with whatever subject he/she is writing about, so as not to leave the children confused and emotionally upset at the end of their reading. That will make way for fear to creep into the child's mind, and fear is not a desirable companion for young children. Children must learn to distinguish sorrow from joy, the good from the bad. Good childrens' literature is supposed to stimulate their imagination, let the fairy tale into their lives, open their eyes to the infinite good and bad qualities of living people, give them expectations of a good and rich life which they have some chance of shaping themselves. It is supposed to demonstrate to them that two eyes see more than one, that life offers other alternatives than the one they know best from their immediate environment. Good children's literature is supposed to enrich the lives of its readers in exactly the same manner as the best literature brings a richness into the lives of grown-up readers, helping them to establish a firm ground on which to stand in an ever-changing world.

Are people aware of the value of good literature for children?

No, far from it, simply because even the finest people do not take children seriously as persons. Even here in Iceland, where people have a reputation for really being good to their children, they are still spoken down to and their views and ideas are mostly ignored. Where I have been abroad the situation is worse and after living for 3 years in Britain, it remains a puzzle to me why people over there bother to have children

at all when it is so easy not to. Of course I am making a generalization, but I know I will never be able to forget my various experiences in this respect. "I must say, I really like my children" my professor at the University of Edinburgh once said, as if that was something really remarkable. His children had just been home on a six weeks holiday from their boarding school in England. And I must admit, this was the friendliest remark that I ever heard a parent utter about his or her children during those 3 years I lived in that otherwise pleasant country. Nor was my manner particularly amiable when my ten-year old son returned from school one day with a swollen hand after being beaten by his teacher with a stick for some minor misdeed, or when I saw mothers smacking their children in their face in front of everyone in shops or on buses. One can hardly expect people to set much value on providing good literature for children, as long as their respect for them remains at this level.

It is indeed very rare to see people behave like this towards children in this country. Still we have a long way to go before children are respected as thinking human beings in our society. Children are not asked about their own affairs on the hours; they are not asked about TV and radio programs in opinion polls, nor about the publication of books intended for children or the films offered by the cinemas, nor the small number of plays intended for children that are staged by the theatres each year. They simply have to suffer whatever the grown-ups present to them. However, the State Broadcasting Service has taken a step in the right direction with a special program, entitled the Children's Radio, and with its childrens' hours.

Though the enthusiasm and initiative of teachers, librarians and pre-school teachers the publication of childrens' books has improved greatly in this country during the past 10-15 years, which in turn has motivated both writers and publishers to produce better quality books. In many respects there is a greater interest in childrens' literature in Iceland than in most other places, for instance it gets a much greater coverage in newspapers than elsewhere. The fact remains, however, that childrens' literature is still classified and placed separately. Literature specialists have composed a survey of last year's books, for instance in a recent issue of Nordisk Tidskrift, which is intended to serve as information for Scandinavians on each year's publications and of course there isn't the slightest mention of literature for children. Instead worthless literature for grown-ups is preferred to good quality books for children. At best there will appear a belated separate list of "children's books." An illuminating example of the lack of respect for children's literature is the fact that writers like Astrid Lindgren, Tove Janson, Torbjörn Egner, Ole Lund Kierkegaard, Bjarne Reuter og Anne Cath Vestly haven't even been nominated for the Nordic Council's annual Literature Prize, to say nothing of awarding it to them. The year Ronja, the Pirate's Daughter was published - beyond any

doubt the best novel to appear in the Nordic countries that year - it didn't occur to the Swedes to nominate that book for the Prize. Why? Because it was classified as a children's book, although grown-ups enjoy it at least as much as children do.

Those of us who write stories for children have become dead tired of this classification of children's books. The publishers receive more profits from our books than most other books they publish, and we more or less maintain the writers' wage funds. It must be said in the publishers' praise, however, that we receive the same royalties in this country as other writers. This is the case only in very few places so far. Indeed, bad stories are written for children, but awful books for grown-ups are produced just as well. Writers of childrens' books are no worse in this respect, perhaps the contrary. We all share the common basis that we write novels and plays for people. Therefore we are writers, not writers or writers of childrens' books. On the other hand, what makes our position different is the fact that bad and silly childrens' books can be extremely damaging to our readers, whereas bad books for grown-ups are usually absolutely harmless.

PANEL PRESENTATIONS

The School Librarian

as Intermediary to

Knowledge:

For what future do we prepare?



THE DEATH OF SCHOOL LIBRARIANSHIP

James A. Gilman

*I bring you naught for your comfort,
And naught for your desire.
I tell you that Death is in the wind,
And that the flames rise higher.*

*"Libraries are not readily perceived by the public as institutions of cultural value."
(Robert Hughes, in an address given at the State Library of New South Wales, Australia,
in March 1987).*

School Librarianship is an evolving profession. To foretell the nature of the future towards which we are evolving it is necessary, as with any form of evolution, to look back to the past to see how we have evolved this far in our development, to ascertain whether there seems to be any dominant law which has determined the nature of that development, and then to project, in the light of such a law, our continuing evolution in the future.

If we look back into our past, we see a time - say, 100 or so years ago - when school librarianship as a profession did not exist, and when school librarians as a species had not yet evolved. Education, in those days, was carried out in schools in such a way that school libraries, as we know them today, were superfluous. Teaching was along what we know today, as traditional lines, with the unit of instruction being a class of pupils numbering 40,50, or more; the method of instruction being the transfer of memorised fact from the teacher to the class; the medium of instruction being the teacher's voice, supplemented by a blackboard and a stick of chalk; and the instructional resources consisting of the information contained within the teacher's head, supplemented by a set of class text books.

Where a school library - of the kind we've looked at this week - to have been suddenly deposited on the doorstep of such a school, I've no doubt that it would have

created quite a stir, and been the subject of considerable interest and excitement. But it would not have been made use of by the school in its educational programme - because it would have had no relevance to the teaching and learning methods being employed within that programme.

This would suggest, to me, the possible existence of what might, perhaps, turn out to be a primary - even THE primary - law of School Library *That it is the existing curriculum within a school* (and, by curriculum, I mean both the content of what is taught and the methodology employed) *which determines the nature of the School Library provision required, and therefore capable of being usefully employed, within that school.*

In other words: you may establish, fund, and staff a School Library along whatever pattern and according to whatever administrative policy happens to be in vogue; but unless that Library has been created in response to the educational needs of the school it serves - needs which find their expression through the curriculum - and unless its services mirror the requirements of that curriculum, it will play only a peripheral role in the educational programme of that school.

Let's move on, to the period of, say, from the end of the Second World War to the 1960s. We are still in the era of traditional educational methodology characterised, still, by the class unit, the teacher, the blackboard, and the textbook. School Libraries, however, have arrived on the scene, usually as an outpost of the English Department, housed in a converted classroom staffed by an English teacher who has had no form of library training, and who runs the library in his or her spare time. Such libraries served 3 main purposes: to provide a source of occasional reference to teachers wishing to verify some fact or check a reference; to provide a source of "good" literature and of reference materials to pupils studying for examinations (and often, consequently, used only by the senior pupils in the school); and as a place to which pupils might be sent when they're being a nuisance in the class, so that they didn't disturb the work of the rest of the class.

The role of such a School Library has, again, been determined by the nature of the school curriculum teachers can teach, and pupils can learn, quite adequately for the purposes of the day, without having to turn to resources outside their own classroom - and so there is no need for a wider range of services than such a Library is in a position to provide.

Let's move on again: to the period from around the 1960s to the present day - what we might call the era of RESOURCE-BASED LEARNING. This period saw the birth of a concept of a new kind of curriculum which laid stress on the pupil as an individual possessing individual educational needs, rather than a peg stuck into one of 30 or more holes which, when all 30 pegs had been assembled, constituted a teachable mass

audience; on emphasizing the LEARNING engaged in by the pupil, rather than the TEACHING engaged in by the teacher; on providing the individual pupil with valuable educational experiences, rather than putting him or her through a restricted study programme designed solely to enable them to pass an examination; and on utilising as wide a range of teaching and learning resources - audio-visual as well as print - as could be made available, and of having these properly organised and competently managed within a central school agency, as a means of widening and deepening the learning experiences open to the individual pupil.

A school curriculum based on such a concept plainly needed a very different kind of supporting resources agency to that of the traditional, reactive School Library consisting of a limited range of books under the spare-time control of an English teacher. And so was born the SCHOOL LIBRARY RESOURCE CENTRE - known in some countries as the SCHOOL MEDIA CENTRE - with characteristics which varied from school to school but which included such elements as purpose-built premises, properly-trained staff, and a co-ordinated stock which included a wide range of audio-visual resources in addition to books and other print material.

It is this point, I would suggest, that marks the leading edge of the highway of School Library evolution to date - the point where the bitumen or concrete surface ends, and an ill-defined dirt track begins to wind up towards the distant skyline of the future. We've not all arrived at the edge of this highway as yet, of course. Different countries, different schools within the same country, even, occupy different points along this road at the present moment of time; but we are all - I could suggest - moving in the direction of an educational curriculum based on the concept of resource-based learning, tailored to the needs of the individual pupil, and supported by the kind of School Library or Library Resource Centre which is indispensable to the implementation and realisation of such a curriculum.

I cannot speak from personal experience of schools and School Media Centers in the USA and Canada; but I have been, and worked as a School Librarian in, schools in Australia and the US where Library Resource Centres have been established, funded and staffed to an appropriate level, and yet in which the full potential of such an agency has not been utilised because the school curriculum has still not moved far enough away from the traditional pattern of teaching to require the kind of services such an agency is equipped to provide, and which therefore has no need for such advanced services.

This only serves - I would suggest - to validate my proposed FIRST EVOLUTIONARY PRINCIPLE OF SCHOOL LIBRARIANSHIP: *that, as School Libraries exist to serve the curricular needs of their school, it is the school curriculum that determines the role of the school library and, with it, that of the School Librarian.*

If true, this point is vital to our discussion today; for it means that the future of School Librarianship will be dictated - as its past and present has been dictated - by the nature of the curriculum which it exists to implement. And that curriculum - I would suggest - is fated to be drastically re-shaped by the rapidly-evolving needs and requirements of the coming 21st Century.

The world is changing - fast; and with it, the nature of the society we live in. 'Unless we are able, in the short space of time left to us by circumstance, to recast our educational system in the mould already being scoured out across the face of society by the advancing currents of change, we shall find ourselves the losers in the race for the future - excommunicated, for our failure to keep up with them, by the advanced nations of the world'.¹⁾

Our children today are having to be educated for a life very different from our own: a life characterised by greater leisure, sometimes enforced by long-term unemployment and earlier retirement; a life in which those in work will need to be able to re-educate themselves continuously throughout their working life, to cope with new patterns of work and new areas of employment; a life in which the mastery of skills becomes more important than the memorisation of a body of knowledge which is no longer static, but ever-changing and constantly expanding; a life in which INFORMATION becomes the primary resource, and the skills of accessing and manipulating that information becomes the key to success. For 'information is wealth, and rapid and wide access to information is power'.²⁾

To meet the needs of such a society, schools must become educational agencies in which information (in its differing aspects of fact, knowledge, assessment, and opinion) becomes not only the key resource and the basic manipulative tool of learning, but also the key product. *In such a school, those who organise, manage, and control the flow of information will become the key personnel.* It is to this kind of future - I suggest - that School Librarians should be looking.,

To a future in which the traditional tools of our traditional trade - the books in our libraries - will be first supplemented, and the eventually supplanted, by other, more exotic forms of information containers.

To a future in which information itself, rather than the format in which this

information is packaged, will become our business and our stock-in-trade.

And to a future in which the School Librarian, as we know him or her today, will no longer exist. For already, we are queing up to join the dinosaurs. The profession of School Librarianship is dying out. In its place - I would suggest - will come a new profession: that of Information Consultant. And such a profession will model itself not on Librarianship- that profession whose institutions, the Libraries, are not (as ROBERT HUGHES has suggested) perceived as being institutions of cultural value - but on another profession whose institutions ARE perceived as being very much of value. Not of cultural value, however, but of business value.

For education, in the world of tomorrow, will become very much a business: a business whose currency is information and whose objective is the creation, by the exchange and manipulation of this new electronic coinage, of a new wealth of learning which will enrich the lives of our students, and, through them, the society of the new millenium. The success of schools engaged in the business of education will depend, in no small measure, upon having ready access to an unlimited depository of information, and to professional advice on the most appropriate units of this currency to advance to their clientele - the students - with a view to its profitable investment in stocks of new skills, and in shareholdings of new knowledge.

Now, to whom does a business turn for its funding and its investment advice? To its local Library? No. To its local Bank. In the same way, I would envisage this new generation of schools turning, for access to the information which will constitute the currency of their day-to-day transactions, to their SCHOOL INFORMATION BANK, presided pover by its manager: the INFORMATION CONSULTANT - known, in older times, as the School Librarian.

Don't think that I'm advocating merely a change of title. A rose by any other name will continue to play host to the same colonies of greenfly - but a Bank is a very different institution to a Library.

Banks - unlike Libraries - have a high social image. Banks - unlike Libraries - are recognised, by educated and un-educated alike, as playing a vital and, indeed, indispensable role within the community, pumping the financial lifeblood upon which that community depends through an intricate network of commercial veins and arteries, to nourish and fuel every cell and sinew of society's business and domestic life.

With the School Information consultant occupying, within the school community, the same kind of respected position as that occupied by the Bank Manager within the wider community at large, organising and managing the flow of information from the School Information Bank to every Department and individual within the school

community, and advising on its learning investment potential, how much more influential and indispensable to the life and work of the school would such an information-storing, disseminating, and advisory agency be than the typical School Library of today?

Already, we are moving away from the 'technician' image of the School Librarian's role (if, by School Librarian, we mean the person in overall charge of a School Library or Resource Centre) - for library assistants, and that ultimate resource user's apprentice, the computer, are taking over this aspect of our traditional role. Already, our role within the school is becoming, more and more, that of an adviser to the teaching staff on the availability and use of resources of all kinds within the school.

Already, information is becoming the key element in education, and the School Librarian the most obvious organiser and manager of a School's information sources and resources. Already, the term 'INFORMATION BANK' has acquired a familiar ring. And already, information consultants are springing to their feet in the real world outside our schools - whitecoated children of the Hydra's teeth with their calculators and computers, their disks and databanks, eager to pursue their own, more vicious version of the Librarian's role: stamping out books.

The title and role of School Librarian - I would suggest - saddled as it is with the image of our custodianship of that dinosaur of the information world, the Book - poses a threat to our credibility, within the Brave New World of Information Technology, as being serious partners in the serious business of educating our youth for the 21st Century.

And yet, it is our use of literature, as Librarians, to open the minds of our pupils to the world of creative imagination, and to those eternal moral values upon which all successful social behaviour must be based, that offers the best hope of humanizing the impact of the new technology upon the lives of those who pass through our schools. We have, most decidedly, a vital role still to play in the education of the young people of today for the world of tomorrow; but it is a role which must be played - I would suggest - in the new robes of the Information Consultant, rather than in the moth-eaten garb of the School Librarian.

Our choice is simple. We die out, to be replaced - as the dinosaurs were replaced by their successors, the mammals - by that new species called information technologists; or we evolve, like the primates, by descending - from the leafy trees of our traditional literary heritage and boldly claiming our mastery of the great, wide plain of information management opening out before us to the far horizons.

If we don't, others, in their little white coats gleaming with technological polish, upon which not a speck of book-dust has ever lingered, will claim it instead.

At that - I would finally suggest - would be a fate much worse than the death of

the School Librarian, which I have so boldly predicted this morning.

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THE SCHOOL LIBRARIAN AS INTERMEDIARY TO KNOWLEDGE: FOR WHAT FUTURE DO WE PREPARE?

Dianne Oberg

My remarks are based on my experience as a teacher-librarian in Canada and as an instructor in the school libraries program in the Faculty of Education at the University of Alberta. I work with pre-service teachers, that is, undergraduate students in education, and with experienced teachers returning for training in school librarianship. My contact with them has challenged me to consider the direction of education and the skills that the future will demand of school librarians and their students.

The future will be characterized by ever-increasing and ever- accelerating change. Our young people will face many more changes than did previous generations in their career and life patterns. They will be less defined by their jobs and more defined by the choices they make for personal growth and leisure. The boundaries between work and leisure will continue to blur. And as the world continues to shrink, all of us are increasingly aware of the extent and complexity of world problems, including the very real possibility of nuclear war.

Our young people need skills and attitudes that enable them to meet these challenges successfully, without succumbing to cynicism or despair. As school librarians, we must continue to help students to develop into lifelong learners and informed decision-makers, that is, into independent information-literate citizens.

The students we are educating now and in the future need strengths in the affective area as well as in the cognitive skill area. In order to cope with the future, our students need confidence in their ability to make meaning of their world and of their experience in it. They need to have an acceptance of the ever-changing nature of information and knowledge, and an optimism about their abilities as individuals to take responsible roles in their society.

In the cognitive area, the emphasis must be on the process skills, what some have called 'the new basics'. Our young people need to be skillful in handling information, able not to retrieve information but also to select, evaluate, organize, synthesize and share relevant information. They need to develop a repertoire of complex thinking skills and to be able to select and utilize the kind of thinking skill most effective for a particular

problem-solving situation.

School librarians have a critical role to play in ensuring that young people do develop these essential affective and cognitive skill areas. The education of school librarians for this role begins with teacher training. Pre-service teachers need to become aware of themselves as learners, that is, their pre-service education should involve exposure of educational theory and practice that supports independence in learning and that facilitates the development of the teachers' own information-handling skills. Course instructors and university librarians can work together, as do classroom teachers and school librarians, to ensure that pre-service teachers learn and practice information skills within the context of course content.

Pre-service teachers should be introduced to the concept of an integrated school library program in their training years. This concept of the library program is generally well understood by school librarians, but not by classroom teachers, and this has been a major barrier to the implementation of integrated programs in many schools.

The nature of pre-service teacher training and the degree of library program implementation in the schools affects the nature of education for school librarianship. Because many of those entering school librarianship training will not have encountered the integrated school library program in their pre-service teacher training or in their experience as classroom teachers, they must begin by acquiring a thorough understanding of what an effective school library program is and how it works within the context of the school curriculum.

Education for school librarianship programs must develop competencies in teaching and in librarianship. Two competency areas are particularly critical in preparing school librarians: learning theory and consultancy skills.

School librarians need to know much more than how information is organized and accessed. They must know how children learn, how they process information and how they acquire strategies for handling information. School librarians must know how to develop learning activities that maximize children's learning of process and their feeling of success. These competencies are essential in working with teachers to ensure that our students develop the skills for independent and successful learning.

The school librarians' role as in-school consultant, helping teachers teach, demands competencies from the area of consultancy, including those of leadership and advocacy. School librarians need skills and strategies for working with teachers in the cooperative planning and teaching activities that an effective school library program demands. School librarians have to be able also to act as advocates for the program, able to articulate clearly its philosophy and benefits and able to act as change agents and

innovators in order to implement the program.

The challenges of the future will be best met by those who have the skills and attitudes needed to handle change, to solve problems, and to make decisions. As school librarians we have an important role to play in ensuring that our young people are competent and confident in meeting those challenges.



**THE SCHOOL LIBRARIAN AS
INTERMEDIARY
TO KNOWLEDGE: FOR WHAT FUTURE DO
WE PREPARE?**

Joyce M. Wallen

Longman's New Generation Dictionary gave me what I regard as a simple but trenchant definition of "intermediary."

"Person coming between two other things, groups, people, often to bring them together."

The School Librarian is by this definition truly an intermediary, standing between the vast production from the mills of knowledge and the school community and by association the wider community beyond the confines of the school.

'Coming between' does not indicate a static posture nor a confrontational nor obstructive one but rather an active, engaged role of recognizing, gleaning, sifting, producing and sharing information; of instructing, working, pushing, inspiring the groups or people to recognition, acceptance and absorption of the information to the enrichment of their programmes and projects. The intermediary is often also catalyst who brings about the distillation of information into knowledge.

The role of the School Librarian as intermediary, as conduit between knowledge and the people or groups in the school environment makes him/her so important, so vital that it seems impossible to think that this fact is not recognized in some quarters or, if perceived, not given the weight it should have.

The topics which would have been discussed by the time this panel convenes give ample evidence of the vital concerns of the School Librarian in her role as intermediary and indicate in some measure, the multiplicity of functions which she must perform. I do not know what tack the speakers will take but the captions do make me think of the role of the School Librarian as intermediary to knowledge.

For example:

- 1) The implementation of information skills-
What better way to initiate the voyage of discovery of knowledge and of self, which most School Librarians regard as their primary function?.
- 2) Intergrating the School Library into everyday school work-
This has often to be effected against a background of resistance or scant regard for the absolute necessity of this function.
- 3) The use of Libraries in inter-disciplinary Project Work-
Here we have the role of the School Librarian as all things to all men, the link, the provider, the person who makes things happen and happen smoothly in the best interest of teachers and students.
- 4) Writing and Publishing for Children-
This is the area which can give the School Librarian the greatest concern or the greatest joy: The proliferation of writing and publishing often results, mercifully, in quality material to enrich our resources. But there is material which is mediocre or even poor both in content and format and the School Librarian has to be engaged in the search for and has always to encourage the production of material relevant to the many needs of her Library. She has also to be concerned about cost effective purchases as in most cases the financial constraints of the budget weave a tight web around absolute freedom of acquisition.
5. The School Library and Automation-
The School Librarian in developed countries has plunged headlong into the world of technology and is au fait with the uses and effects of automation as a teaching tool. There are areas of the world of librarianship, however, which have not yet caught up with some of the audiovisuals which are now "old hat" in other countries. School Librarians are fund-raising to purchase basic items such as record players, tape/slide projectors, overhead projectors and the like or they are requesting cast offs from colleagues who are more fortunate in their collections. But even in these areas, School Librarians are aware of the technological advances and are casting around for opportunities to bring their

benefits to the school community through the Library, and so link them to the ever increasing fund of information and knowledge.

6) The School Library as an indispensable agent in the School-

There is no one involved in IASL who would think in the negative about that topic. It sounds like the credo of the School Librarian.

She is the indispensable agent in the development of policies and objectives. She is indispensable in the implementation of strategies to reach out and to try to make malleable and productive the clay of administrators, educators, students and the community. The School Librarian can be, has been and will be indispensable whatever the future holds for School Libraries. And so for what future then do we as School Librarians prepare?

The interdependence of our world makes it imperative for us to prepare ourselves for a future that will naturally, be the same in which we all have to function and relate. What has to be borne in mind however, is the fact that in different parts of the world we are likely to take slightly different roads to arrive at the same objective.

School Librarians in developing countries, for example, cannot initially base their approach to information skills on the use of technology. Our course is charted by the realities of our environment.

Our consideration must be the level, not of computer literacy but of primary literacy not only in the School community but also in the wider Society.

We are faced with a present from which in some respects, we can deduce the immediate future. From our present situation therefore, we can envisage an inadequate School Library system made so mainly by financial constraints but also by a certain level of bureaucratic indifference and ignorance. Against these, technological advancement in the field of information has not so far made a strong impression.

This has been the case in some places

- because of the very fact of Geography
- often because of the political climate
- by reason of the historic fact that these countries entered the field of education and School Librarianship late in the day and now have to try to meet educational expectations in spite of the several constraints imposed.
- by having to consider closely the socio-economic background of the school population and marry it to national aspirations.

In considering the future, the thought arises: For what are School Librarians needed in their country for which the School community is often the mirror on the wall?

As we are striving to do in the present, School Librarians will be needed in the future to help shape policies for the many different aspects of library development. We shall be needed to develop resources not only by way of Library collections but also, and perhaps more importantly, by way of developing the human resources within our immediate circle, that is our students and teachers.

As intermediary to knowledge we shall have to adopt innovative strategies and indigenous approaches to the task of taking students beyond the mechanics of reading, to the appreciation of reading; through the acquisition of basic learning skills into the search for, and application of information; through the love of learning to the pursuit of knowledge.

While School Librarians in a developed country may "take the high road" and their counterparts in the developing country may "take the low road" the competencies acquired in formal training for Librarianship will provide the basis for both avenues of approach to Librarianship in their respective countries.

The application of the tools of the trade, will depend on the environment in which service has to be given. But training will enable School Libraries in the different areas to perceive the direction to be taken within their own countries and to develop the strategies to be used.

School Librarians must prepare for any future, anywhere, by acquiring these commonly shared competencies.

From the vantage point of the present, for what future then does it seem we can prepare? Even a cursory reading of the Literature of the present leads us to realize that although enormous strides have indeed been made in sensitising government agencies, school boards, school administrations, other teachers and the students, School Libraries have still not settled in their rightful place in some areas in developed countries and in some developing countries. Indeed there are conflicting views of the purpose and function of Libraries and by that definition School Libraries, in some third world countries. An abridged version of an article by Shiraz Durrani, of the Library Acquisitions Department of the University of Nairobi, Kenya, published in *Ideas and Action*, 154'83. illustrates this dissatisfaction not only with purpose and function but also with the bases of training and qualification for performing in that particular country.

It would appear from the literature that in whatever country we live, at whatever stage of development, School Librarianship funds itself in the present and for whatever reasons, School Libraries must be integrated into the total life of the school and ultimately the community, to be really effective. For whatever future we prepare, we shall find that school librarianship will not be exclusively print based but will involve the use of technology however rudimentary.

Surveys of the present Library scene in Great Britain, in areas of Canada and the Caribbean show that Guidelines are even now being laid down for the many aspects of School Librarianship and that it needs to be organized, to be directed into channels which will make it function more effectively as a gateway to knowledge.

By rationalizing our objectives, our functions and our procedures, by delineating but not limiting our areas of operation, we are preparing ourselves for the future. By revising and expanding the fields of the competencies by which we qualify ourselves to cope with the varied demands of our profession in whatever country we function, we are preparing for the future. The teaching programmes of the various Library Schools offer both basic core subjects and a wealth of options for specialization and experimentation. In this way we share a basic philosophy of Librarianship but can shape this to our varied needs and aspirations. We share basic areas of expertise, but also acquire the means of refining and reshaping these skills to serve our own areas of the world.

We are preparing for a future in which the people we serve will still have all the basic intellectual needs and in which the computer and the book will continue to be juxtaposed.

It was interesting to find the same issue of the *Media Spectrum* Vo. 12, No. 2 the mind-expanding article by Rosanne Holton entitled "Today and Tomorrow... reading and

telecommunications", dealing with the wide scope of information by technology as well as a challenging piece by Barbara Friedberg, "Cracking the invisible barrier" which prevents children from "seeking out books" for all reasons including that of "personal choice for leisure activity."

The School Librarians' role has to be nicely balanced between the endeavours portrayed in these two articles.

The printed word is the genesis of most stated information though certainly not all. In all systems, the book is part of the base of the data-base and the most important task of the School Librarian will be to continue to ensure the use of, respect for and love of the printed word, while teaching and refining the use of those technological skills which are able to call up information from many diverse sources and to sift it and present it in an almost magical way.

The magic of the computer should not be allowed to supersede the magic of the book and as School Librarians we must prepare ourselves for a future in which we achieve this balance in our services to the School community.

The School Librarian is in a unique position to establish a relationship with and perhaps to exert an influence on students in a way that the public Librarian, for example, cannot. As we prepare for a future of even greater technological intervention in everyday life we need to prepare also for finding the ways of increasing the wealth of inner resources of those whose lives we may influence.

Respect for and an ability to evaluate and then use information are vital to maintaining a civilized society. In a world of bigotry and violence learned early at first hand or absorbed second-hand from television screens, a modicum of sanity can be achieved by those in whom the best human values have been instilled through personal experience or by an encounter in the pages of the book. School Librarians have often been mentor or catalyst and we shall continue to have those roles in the future for which we daily prepare.

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THE SCHOOL LIBRARIAN AS INTERMEDIARY TO KNOWLEDGE: WHAT FUTURE IN NIGERIAN SCHOOL

David F. Elaturoti

The new national policy on education in Nigeria popularly referred to as the 6-3-3-4 education system came into force in October 1983. Under the new system, the child spends six years in the primary school, three years in the junior secondary school, three years in the senior secondary school and four years in higher education. The products of the junior secondary schools are admitted to either the senior secondary schools, technical colleges or teachers' colleges depending on their subject of interests. The products of these institutions could also have their higher education in the universities, polytechnics, colleges of education and other professional institutions.

The schools curricula at the primary and junior secondary schools have been diversified to include new subjects such as social and cultural studies, and technical and vocational subjects in the junior secondary schools to cater for differences in talents, opportunities and roles open to students after secondary education. The varied subjects also give the Nigerian child the opportunity to develop mechanical, vocational and manipulative skills that could inculcate in him a spirit of self-reliance, industry, versatility and self-discipline.

For the effective teaching of the subjects, a variety of print and non-print materials include tapes, slides, pictures, photographs, specimens, videotapes, 16mm films, film-loops, vertical file materials and computer programmes. Other learning resources include the educational programmes broadcast on television and radio on the different subjects to supplement the classroom teaching and in some subjects provide the main source of information. Nigeria as other developing countries is becoming aware of the world resources of knowledge and information in the varying format which can be available to her for implementing her educational programmes.

The teacher-librarian has the responsibility to develop a multi-media collection that provides adequate resource base for teaching and learning activities in the schools. There is a shortage of suitable and relevant learning materials available in the Nigerian market to

support effectively teaching in schools. The teacher-librarian will have to engage in design and production of learning materials to supplement the available learning materials in some subjects or provide the only source of learning materials in other subjects especially the new vocational and cultural subjects being introduced. The teacher-librarians require the technology to record the intellectual products of the Nigerian cultural heritage embedded in the oral literature, traditions, festivals, religious events, customs and norms of the people.

The format of learning resources is also changing to multi-media packages. Same information printed in books is also recorded on cassette-tape to be accompanied with a filmstrip for illustration.

The student can decide to play back the cassette tape or record and preview the filmstrip or slide along with it instead of reading a book on the same topic. The students have to be familiar with the varying format of learning materials print & non-print acquired in school libraries in support of the educational programme.

The intermediary role of the teacher-librarian to knowledge

The teacher-librarian besides developing and organising school library collections has to teach the library use skills to the students for efficient utilization of learning resources that will make it possible for teachers and students to achieve content related goals and make students more independent in inquiring as they become more proficient in the use of materials. Through orientation programmes, the students should be taught the library rules and be able to identify the kinds of media available in the library collection. To be able to use resource collection of the school library, the students should understand the information on the catalogue cards and use it to locate relevant books and non-book materials for their subjects in the school library collection. The students should be taught to distinguish between the contents of books -fiction and non-fiction. They should be able to identify the parts of a book and other vital information such as author, title, table of content, index, glossary and appendix. The primary school child should be able to record and play back tape recordings and view slides and use efficiently other non-book media. At the secondary school, students having project work should be able to select suitable and relevant print and non-print materials to specific subjects of study and also have skill to produce some non-print materials for learning purposes. They should be familiar with the types of reference materials that are relevant to specific subjects of study.

Library use education programme for Nigerian schools

The mass education programme in Nigeria since 1976 had rapidly increased school enrolment in the last decade. According to the World Bank Report (1980), mass education in developing countries recorded excessive wastage in: repeaters, dropouts and poor quality of final products. It is the strong believe that this wastage is due to inadequate provision of learning materials and libraries and that the wastage can be eliminated by the provision of libraries and a library curriculum that ensures interaction and transfer of reference and learning skills.

The Abadina Media Resource Centre University of Inbadan, Nigeria was established in 1974 as a public service unit and research centre for investigating the problems of school librarianship. The main research activities of the centre has been concerned with developing the curricula for library use education for primary secondary and post secondary institutions. The curricula, published in Syllabuses for Effective Use of Books and Libraries are designed to transfer learning and utilization of resource skills to the pupil or student. The curriculum for primary school has been administered in an experimental six-year longitudinal study conducted by F.A. Ogunsheye (1987) and based on the experience of the study, has been revised for adequacy. The study is to test the effectiveness of the designed curriculum and measure its effect on the cognitive and effective development of the primary school child. The report of the study has been published in Ogunsheye (1987) Effect of Library Use Education Programme on Academic Achievement and Social Development of the Primary School Child. The study among other things identified appropriate learning materials as the important factor in promoting a high quality of achievement among primary school subjects and therefore high quality products.

The curricula for Primary and secondary schools (Grades 1-12)

The curriculum for primary schools took into consideration the background of many Nigerian children that will be coming in contact with books for the first time the day he enters school. The pupil in the first year in primary school is introduced to the world of books by reading folktales to him as well as by picture books. Recorded stories on tapes or records are playback to him. He is taught how to handle and care for books. In the second year, individual reading is encouraged from the array of picture books made available to him. He is also asked to make his own picture book. In the third year the pupil is introduced to other categories of books - non-fiction and works of reference for

children. In the fourth year, the pupil is taught the history of books, and printing and the features of a book-author, title, subject and the parts of a book and their relevance to use of the book. He is also taught how to use an encyclopedia and other reference books. In the fifth year, the pupil is taught the use of the library and finding aids such as the card catalogue and reference books in carrying out his project work. These skills are reinforced in the sixth year. The pupil is also introduced to other libraries - public, special libraries in the vicinity which he could use.

In the secondary school, in the first year, the student is given orientation to the school library collection i.e. arrangement of the library materials, classification scheme, library rules. He is taught how the library catalogue is compiled and how to use it. He is introduced to reference materials encyclopaedias, dictionaries, handbooks, directories, biographies and given information on contents, arrangements, and uses. In the second year, he is introduced to subject information sources and given project work that would involve use of the sources. He is also taught how to make references in a written paper or project work. In the third year, he is introduced to some other subject information sources and periodical literature. In the fourth year the student is taught how to study independently using the periodical literature and other information sources. In the fifth year the student is taught the skills of using the audio visual hardware and software. He is encouraged to use other libraries: public, special and academic in pursuit of his studies. The skills are to be taught in one or two lessons per week.

The curricula have been recommended for use in Nigerian schools for transmitting knowledge and skills about exploitation and utilization of knowledge and learning resources.

The future for teacher-librarians in Nigerian schools

For the successful implementation of the new national policy on education, there should be a variety of learning resources in schools, available in the school library media centre for the use of pupils and teachers. The school library media centres should be managed by qualified teachers-librarians who will develop such multi-media collection and teach the skills for their efficient utilization to students. In the new national policy on education all schools are to have school libraries in support of the education programme. It is therefore expected that many schools that do not have libraries will be provided with funds to build libraries and equip them with adequate learning resources. So also a greater number of qualified teacher-librarians will be needed in the schools. At present there is a dearth of qualified teacher-librarians in Nigerian schools resulting from two

factors: absence of establishment of position of teacher-librarians with remuneration in schools and lack of school library facilities in many schools.

There is the urgent need to train teacher librarians for Nigerian schools that will be adequately equipped with the knowledge of developing a rich, and adequate collection of print and non-print materials and teaching the skills for efficient utilization to facilitate achievement of high quality education in the implementation of the policy. It is for this purpose that the Abadina Media Resource Centre has designed a one-year teacher-librarian certificate course on part-time basis to train teacher-librarians for Nigerian schools - primary and secondary. The Syllabuses for Effective Use of Books and Libraries is also being recommended for use in teacher training institutions to teach teachers in training the skills of library use, so that they too could assist the teacher-librarian to teach their students the skills of using learning resources efficiently. The future for teacher-librarians in Nigerian schools is a challenging one and their intermediary role to knowledge are vital to the effective implementation of the Nigerian educational policy.

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IASL ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING JULY 28, 1987

AGENDA

1. Call to order and welcome - Pres. Cooke
President's Report
2. Minutes of 1986 Annual General Meeting
3. Executive Secretary's Report - J. Lowrie
4. Treasurer's Report - D. Adcock
Presentation of 1987-1988 Budget
5. Assembly of Associations - J. Wright
6. Committee Reports
Publications - P. Hauk
Membership - A. Nelsen
Unesco Co-Action Program - L. Thomas
7. Appointment of Tellers
Presentation of nominations - B. Anderson
8. Recommendation re Annual/biennial Conference
9. New Business
10. 1988 Conference
11. Resolutions
12. Adjournment

Official Parliamentarian - L. Thomas

MINUTES

Annual General Meeting of the International Association of School Librarianship, Reykjavík, Iceland, July 28, 1987.

The meeting was called to order by President Michael Cooke who welcomed the members assembled at the Hotel Saga, Reykjavík, Iceland.

The annual report of the President is appended to these minutes. The president announced that Lucille Thomas would serve as parliamentarian.

The minutes of the 1986 IASL annual meeting held in Halifax, Nova Scotia, were read by the Executive Secretary and approved by the membership.

The Executive Secretary's report was highlighted. The full text is appended to these minutes. Beryl Colwell moved acceptance. Jane Hardy seconded. Carried.

Treasurer, Donald Adcock, presented the financial report for 1986-87, which is appended. There being no discussion, the report was placed on file for final auditing. The 1987-88 budget was presented and accepted by consent.

Vice President John Wright reported on the Assembly of Associations. There were eleven official representatives from six countries; three other countries sent written greetings. Seventeen countries had presented greetings at the opening session. Among the issues discussed at the Assembly were: a need to communicate more with the associations through the Communiqué; guidelines for Assembly Representatives; the need for an up-to-date Directory of Association members; WCOTP relationships to be strengthened through official representation at their biennial conferences; greater effort to publicize IASL in their countries and associations per se.

Committee reports

a) Publications - Philomena Hauck chair. During the past year two major projects have been implemented (1) production of the Index to IASL Proceedings 1972-1985 compiled by Ken Haycock, (2) Negotiations with Scarecrow Press for publication of selected IASL papers.

b) Membership - Alice Nelsen chair. Emphasis was placed on the need for enthusiasm - a contagious element. She asked that members make an effort to talk to their own association program planning committees to help publicize IASL through displays,

slide shows, special brochures, etc.

c) IASL/Unesco Co-action book program - Lucille Thomas chair. Her report is attached but the need to emphasize this effort as a part of the literacy programs in each country was brought out. A special collection was taken which netted approximately \$260 (US) for the fund.

The president announced that Beryl Colwell and Joy Cooke would serve as tellers if voting required this.

The Nominating Committee for 1988 was announced.

Gladys Caywood (USA) chair, Marjory Hargreaves (UK) and Maureen Finkle (Canada) additional members. Next year's vacancies will include those of Vice President and directors from Australasia and Europe.

At this point President Cooke read a statement which served as background for this year's Nominating Committee report. He explained that the problems of communication with Africa and Latin America had delayed the nominations for directors from these countries; that the 1987 Nominating Committee chair, Beatrice Anderson, was continuing to work on these and a mail ballot would be sent with the October Newsletter as provided in the Bylaws.

Chair Anderson then read the report of the Nominating Committee. For treasurer, Donald Adcock (USA), for directors, Kim Siong Wong (Malaysia) and Takeshi Murofushi (Japan). The report of the Nominating Committee was accepted and the above were elected unanimously.

The recommendation from the Board re the discussion on annual or biennial conferences and carried over from last year's business meeting was presented by President Cooke. The Board felt in view of the need for visibility, the fact that the Board would have to continue to meet annually and the fact that holding the conferences in various regions was a strength for associations in that region that annual conferences should be continued and invitations for such encouraged. It was moved by Marjory Hargreaves and seconded by Mary Ann Paulin that this recommendation be accepted. Carried unanimously.

Under new business the need for strengthening relationships with other associations was discussed. It was suggested that concurrent meetings with WCOTP and/or IFLA be explored further. The Board will explore this further. Official representation at the annual conferences will continue. Close relationships with both the International Reading Association and IBBY are to be pursued.

The 1988 conference which had been tentatively scheduled for Tanzania will not be held there due to a lack of firm commitment from all parties. It is expected that the 1988 venue will be Vancouver, Canada.

The 1989 conference will be held in Malaysia. A preliminary invitation for 1990 has been received from Yugoslavia.

Director Wong gave an enthusiastic and interesting presentation on Malaysia ending with the formal invitation to hold the conference in Malacca - one of the historic sites in Malaysia. It is expected that a special tour will be developed shortly visiting other places in the Far East - including some libraries - which will be an added inducement to attend this conference.

The president then paid a special tribute to Mieko Nagakura who has served two three year terms as Director. She has been a faithful and active member, having attended all board meetings during these terms. Retiring director, David Elaturoti from Nigeria who has also served two terms, was also thanked in absentia.

There being no further business the annual meeting was adjourned.

Jean E. Lowrie

Executive Secretary.

PRESIDENT'S REPORT

As I complete the first year of my second term as President, I wonder how different this second term will be.

So far it is a rather mixed answer.

Communication (or should I say lack of it) still remains an obstacle to progress. It seems very difficult to get enough feedback from our members scattered around the world, to know if we are operating along the right lines; to know if there are programmes or services which they would like to see us involved with other than what we are presently doing.

We still maintain a number of committees appointed by the President and I would be only too happy to appoint more members to these committees if they were willing to get really involved with their activities. We remain grateful to the chairpersons who keep these committees going. This year we can report some encouraging progress in the development of publications. We now have an index available for the past conference proceedings up to 1984 and we must be grateful to Ken Haycock for the initial work and to Phil Hauck for following it through to publication. I am sure it will prove a useful document. Dr. Hauck is also working on a publication with Scarecrow Press, which will bring together appropriate papers from conference proceedings. Phil Hauck, I am sure would welcome ideas from members about future publications and the other committees would also be open to suggestions for action.

This year we have launched the Leadership Development Fund. A very worthwhile initiative which will help our colleagues in the Third World. You will hear more of that and I do ask you to give it your full support.

We are fortunate to have among our members, colleagues who gain recognition for their devotion and service in the cause of school librarianship, from other organisations. In 1986 Grace Tunk of Lumby, British Columbia, and Gerald Brown of Winnipeg (who is with us at this conference) received the Margaret Scott Award. As many of you will know, Margaret Scott was an active member of this Association for many years and I am sure she would have been pleased that our members had been so honoured.

John Wright, our able Vice President who has been a loyal worker for IASL for many years, has been honoured by the Saskatchewan Association of Educational Media Specialists, who have named their distinguished service award after him. We take pride in this honour to our Vice President.

The Newsletter has continued to be published under the able guidance of its editor Judith Higgins. Judith is always on the look out for news items and for members willing to act as reviewers for publications.

Last year we welcomed a new Treasurer. Donald Adcock has served us well in that office and helped us to gain better financial control on our activities.

I feel I must also thank two of our members who now seem to be establishing a pleasant tradition. In Hawaii in 1984, IASL T-shirts made a distinguished appearance and this was followed up in Halifax last year and here they are again in Reykjavík. Our thanks to Sue Hegarty and Gladys Caywood for undertaking this activity.

Finally, where will we meet again?

The plans we had for meeting in Tanzania have unfortunately not come about. As I said last year it is ten years since we last met in Africa, so we do need to meet on that continent again - but it has to be planned in sufficient time that participants can arrange to make the most of their trip. This was not possible under the present conditions.

Although there may be no international conference in 1988, our Board of Directors will need to meet and it may be possible to arrange a brief programme around that meeting which some members may wish to participate in.

1989 seems set fair for Malaysia which will help us to get in touch with our friends in that area and hopefully our Australian colleagues. We did say that we would make a specific recommendation this year about whether we would maintain the annual conference in future and that will come up for discussion later.

The need for an organisation such as IASL is as great as ever. Around the world

school services remain vulnerable to cutbacks and depreciation. We must all remain vigilant as individuals but we also need the strength of an international association behind us to give us support in our own battles. It is up to us all to build up our strength for this activity.

Michael J. Cooke,
President.

IASL EXECUTIVE SECRETARY'S REPORT

1986-87

"Enthusiasm is the greatest asset in the world. It beats money and power and influence."

Henry Chester

Last year I began my report with a quote on Celebration, appropriate to our 15th anniversary. This time I would emphasize Enthusiasm. It is this asset that has carried IASL on through the years and will continue to do so. Granted we need money and we want to exert an influence - still it is the will to do, to be enthusiastic - that we continue to need to promote. We need to invite new members-both individual and association. We need to share in every way possible why we believe in IASL. We need to be supportive of each others' efforts in every country. We need to plan how to accomplish our objectives more fully.

ACCOMPLISHMENTS. This is not a pessimistic note for we have accomplished things this year. We have completed and distributed our first "Policies and Procedures Handbook"; have completed a revision of our Conference Manual. We have successfully made a change of secretaries with Brenda DeHaan replacing Sandy Burgess. (At this point I would pay a special tribute to Brenda for the way she has so willingly and enthusiastically accepted this job. It's good to be able to count on efficiency and support).

To continue with accomplishments: We have successfully exhibited at the American Association of School Librarians meeting in Minneapolis, at MAME (Michigan), in New York, Oregon, Maryland and New Jersey School Library Association meetings. There may be others I do not know about. In addition, I spoke at the Louisiana School Library Association and had articles published in journals in Norway, Australia and Pacific Islands. In August 1986 Lucille Thomas and I had a delightful luncheon meeting with the Japanese members of IASL. Organized by Mieko Nagakura, this was a highlight for us. Visibility is a key which each officer, director and member can work on more enthusiastically.

The launching of the Leadership Development Fund is another highlight. Although the fund is not growing as rapidly as we might have wished, it is progressing. We are already receiving letters of interest from developing countries.

PUBLICATIONS. The Index to our Proceedings 1972 - 1984 was prepared by Ken Haycock and publication was handled by Phil Hauck (chair publications). This should prove of great assistance in using the Proceedings and should sell well. Please publicize. In addition, Phil is working with Scarecrow Press on a book containing some of the outstanding conference papers; Mieko Nagakura and I are updating the book School Libraries: International Developments also with Scarecrow press. These should be coming out in 1988-89.

PUBLIC RELATIONS. Don't forget to use the PR mailings which come from Joe Hallein and/or the IASL office. They are intended for wide distribution. Please duplicate and mail widely in your region. Use your membership list. A new brochure on "Support-A-Friend" is available and Leadership Fund leaflet will be ready shortly. IASL Membership ribbons which you can use at your national and state/provincial meetings to advertise us are being made. Write to the Secretariate for copies etc. Feel free to translate these leaflets if necessary. Our green and silver brochure has also been reprinted and is available for you to use. Our new IASL lapel pins are now ready for sale.

The list of Publications is in your packet. Please duplicate and circulate widely. Send to your jobbers and distributors so that they are aware of them. Also to your professional journals.

The time has come when ALL OF US MUST push IASL and its work in every way possible. We are listed in many directories and annuals but not enough. Check your national ones. Be sure to have an IASL display at each library association meeting. If you need extra copies of the newsletter for display, let us know.

CONCERNS. Unfortunately there are always concerns and needs to be faced. We need to have better cooperation with the chairs of our Nominating Committee. We should have at least 2 nominees for every office and director. This year we are short. Here is an opportunity for you to involve new and younger members who will bring new ideas and enthusiasm.

We need to try for contributions to the Leadership Fund from countries other than the USA. Surely England, Canada, Australia, Japan, and the Scandinavian countries have foundations, publishers, associations, etc. who could make contributions. The gift of \$1,000 matching fund will be met, I believe, but many gifts of 50, 100, 250 dollars will be just as effective. Again national publicity can be very helpful. Over 150 letters of request were mailed out in January but such efforts are expensive and not too

productive.

Annual conferences vs biennial conferences must be settled this year. The arguments pro and con have been stated several times. The problems raised by the efforts to have Tanzania host the 1988 conference highlight this difficulty. We need to have invitations from associations willing to host IASL and should get back on our schedule of announcing meetings at least 2 years in advance. It appears now that we shall be meeting in Malaysia in 1989 but 1988 is still an unknown at the time of this writing.

The report of the Task Force last year left us with other questions. Should we attempt the development of an international Clearing House of Information? Is the Newsletter sufficient here?

Can we offer consultation help if a country requests it? If so, how?

How can we strengthen our links with member associations? With the school associations or divisions in national professional associations?

All of these could affect our membership growth which continues to be static even though persons from non-member countries seem to find out about us! Remember that word ENTHUSIASM.

In conclusion, I would like to thank the officers, directors and committee chairs for their efforts during this past year. It is this kind of support which makes it possible for IASL to continue as a vital force in school librarianship internationally.

Jean E. Lowrie

Executive Secretary.

INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL LIBRARIANSHIPSTATEMENT OF REVENUE & EXPENSESRevenue

	Budget	Actual	B/(W)
Membership			
Association	\$ 350.00	\$ 485.00	\$ 135.00
Individual	\$ 5800.00	\$ 7033.69	\$ 1233.19
Support a Friend	\$ 150.00	\$ 207.50	\$ 57.50
Sale of Publications	\$ 1500.00	\$ 2580.20	\$ 1080.20
Contributions	\$ 300.00	\$ 140.00	(\$ 160.00)
UNESCO Project	\$ 100.00	\$ 120.00	\$ 20.00
Conference Income	\$ 1000.00	\$ 2819.80	\$ 1819.80
Interest Income	\$ 1500.00	\$ 908.19	(\$ 591.81)
Development Fund		\$ 2232.41	\$ 2232.41
Other		\$ 532.44	\$ 532.44
	<u>\$10700.00</u>	<u>\$17059.23</u>	<u>\$6359.23</u>

EXPENDITURES

Executive Board			
Expenses	\$ 385.00	\$ 400.92	(\$ 15.92)
IFLA Dues/WCOTP Dues	\$ 300.00	\$ 377.57	(\$ 77.57)
Printing	\$ 3000.00	\$ 3431.01	(\$ 431.01)
Tax Exempt Status Filing	\$ 15.00	\$ 5.00	\$ 10.00
Newsletter Postage	\$ 2000.00	\$ 63.58	\$ 1936.42
Newsletter Editor's Expenses	\$ 200.00	\$ 132.60	\$ 67.40
Proceedings printing	\$ 750.00	\$ 175.10	\$ 574.90
Proceedings Postage	\$ 200.00	\$ 14.08	\$ 185.92
Bank Charges	\$ 100.00	\$ 189.97	(\$ 89.97)
Computer Expenses		\$ 211.97	(\$ 211.97)
Conference Assistance		\$ 1000.00	(\$ 1000.00)
Office Expenses	\$ 950.00		\$ 168.54
Telephone		\$ 162.13	
Postage		\$ 31.09	
Misc. Expenses		\$ 588.24	
Secretarial	\$ 2000.00	\$ 2153.50	(\$ 153.50)
Other Expenses (Western Mich.)	\$ 500.00	\$ 5008.00	(\$ 4508.00)
Committee Expenses	\$ 200.00	\$.00	\$ 200.00
UNESCO Project Gifts	\$ 100.00	\$.00	\$ 100.00
<u>TOTAL:</u>	<u>\$10.700.00</u>	<u>\$13944.76</u>	<u>(\$ 3244.76)</u>

Excess Revenue Over Expenditures	\$ 0.00	\$ 3114.47	\$ 3114.47
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STATEMENT OF CASH

(BALANCE OF JUNE 30, 1987)

Balance July 1, 1986	\$ 4,321.91
Excess Revenues over Expenditures	\$ 3,114.47
Conference Income in Transit	\$ 2,819.80
<u>BALANCE June 30. 1987</u>	<u>\$ 4,616.58</u>

STATEMENT OF CURRENT RESOURCES

(As of June 30. 1987)

Checking Balance		\$ 4,616.58
Conference Income in Transit		\$ 2,812.80
Certificates of Deposit		
Old Kent Bank	\$ 10.000	
Old Kent Bank	\$ 5.000	
Center Bank	\$ 5.000	
Dupage Bank & Trust	<u>\$ 3.000</u>	<u>\$ 23,000.00</u>
Prepaid Expenses at Western Michigan		\$ 582.99
TOTAL.		<u><u>\$ 31,019.37</u></u>

INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL LIBRARIANSHIP
PROPOSED BUDGET 1987 - 88

<u>INCOME</u>	<u>ACTUAL</u>	<u>ACTUAL</u>	<u>PROPOSED</u>
Membership			
Association	\$ 340.00	\$ 485.00	\$ 500.00
Individual/Institution	\$ 5,691.34	\$ 7,033.69	\$ 6,000.00
Support a Friend	\$ 115.00	\$ 207.50	\$ 200.00
Sale of Publications	\$ 2,116.80	\$ 2,580.20	\$ 1,500.00
Contributions	\$ 225.00	\$ 140.00	\$ 150.00
UNESCO Project Gifts	\$ 80.45	\$ 120.00	\$ 100.00
Conference Income	\$ 5,000.00	\$ 2,819.80	\$ 4,000.00
Interest Income	\$ 1,334.75	\$ 908.19	\$ 1,500.00
Development Fund		\$ 2,232.41	\$ 2,000.00
Other		\$ 532.44	\$ 500.00
	<u>\$ 14,903.34</u>	<u>\$ 17,059.23</u>	<u>\$ 16,450.00</u>

EXPENDITURES

Executive Board Expenses	\$ 39.72	\$ 400.92	\$ 400.00
IFLA/WCTOP Dues	\$ 278.92	\$ 377.57	\$ 380.00
Printing			
(including duplicating & photocopying)	\$ 3,761.66	\$ 3,431.01	\$ 4,000.00
Filing Tax Exempt Status	\$ 5.00	\$ 5.00	\$ 5.00
Newsletter			
Postage	\$ 1,834.20	\$ 63.58	\$.00
Editor's Expenses	\$ 210.48	\$ 132.60	\$ 200.00
Proceedings			
Printing	\$ 0.00	\$ 175.10	\$ 750.00
Postage	\$ 0.00	\$ 14.08	\$ 0.00
Bank Charges &			
Collection on Foreign Checks	\$ 115.31	\$ 189.97	\$ 200.00
Office Expenses			
Computer Expenses	\$ 0.00	\$ 211.97	\$ 0.00
Telephone	\$ 0.00	\$ 162.13	\$ 170.00
Postage	\$ (9.60)	\$ 31.09	\$ 35.00
Miscellaneous Supplies	\$ (608.05)	\$ 588.24	\$ 600.00
Executive Secretary	\$ 253.26	\$ 0.00	\$ 0.00
Secretarial	\$ 1,732.51	\$ 2,153.50	\$ 3,300.00
Committee Expenses	\$ 149.31	\$ 0.00	\$ 150.00
Conference Assistance	\$ 0.00	\$ 1,000.00	\$ 1,000.00
Additional Expenses (Western Michigan--			
Postage, Printing, etc.)	\$ 2,345.05	\$ 5,008.00	\$ 3,000.00
Development Fund	\$ 0.00	\$ 0.00	\$ 2,000.00
UNESCO Project	\$ 0.00	\$ 0.00	\$ 120.00
	<u>\$ 11,343.07</u>	<u>\$ 13,944.76</u>	<u>\$ 16,310.00</u>
	=====	=====	=====

RESOLUTION

Whereas Principle 7 of the United Nations Declaration of the Rights of the Child states that

".... the child shall be given an education which will promote his personal culture, and enable him on a basis of equal opportunity to develop his abilities, his individual judgement and his sense of moral and social responsibility and to become a useful member of society."

And, whereas the International Association of School Librarianship is concerned that all school libraries should provide accurate information and promote positive values of all cultures as part of their commitment to international understanding, and whereas it has been evident that some of the programs in the electronic media and some of the material in the print media tend to work against the expectations in Principle 7.

Therefore be it resolved that

The International Association of School Librarianship at its 16th annual conference held in Reykjavík, Iceland, urge all of its members to establish and support policies regarding selection, organization and dissemination of media that promote tolerance and understanding of all cultures, and further,

That members be encouraged to use this resolution with publishers and producers of media in their respective countries urging them to produce materials which promote positive values for children and youth.

Adopted by IASL members in conference, July 31, 1987

Reykjavík, Iceland

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ISAL Post Conference Study Tour,**August 1-5, 1987**

Thórdís T. Thórarinsdóttir, guide

After the 16th annual IASL conference 44 of the foreign visitors participated in a four-days or a five days study-tour through Iceland. The group travelled by bus. We covered the western and the northern parts of the country and drove back to Reykjavík through the uninhabited interior of Iceland. A few members of the group flew back to Reykjavík on the evening of the 4th day. Along the road, the tour group visited some historically important locations, nature wonders and a few folklore museums and libraries.

An English speaking guide, Thórdís T. Thórarinsdóttir, M.L.S., a secondary school librarian, accompanied the group .

During the five days we drove about 1.500 km (ca. 940 miles), which is quite something, when one thinks of the Icelandic "highways". But we were lucky enough to get an excellent driver and a big, comfortable coach (62 seats) for the group. When travelling in Iceland the weather makes all the difference and we got a fairly good weather during the tour and the best when we drove between the glaciers on the fifth day.

In Iceland the school vacation is from June through August and the school libraries are then closed as a matter of course, and it is often very difficult to get hold of the right people to show the libraries to visitors. Moreover many of the public libraries have limited opening hours during the summertime. Because of this the main emphasis was placed on surveying the Icelandic nature, some historically important locations and the birdlife. Of course it is very limited one can see on a short tour like this, but proportionally to the time spent, we visited quite many places.

As mentioned above the Icelandic schools are closed for three months in the summer. During this time the boarding schools in the country are converted into summer hotels. The study tour got mostly it's accommodation and meals in the summer hotels.

On the first day we drove from Reykjavík in the morning along Hvalfjörður and through Borgarfjörður which is one of the most fertile agricultural areas in Iceland. The scene is the background for one of the most famous Icelandic sagas, The Saga of Egill.

We had lunch in Reykholt where Snorri Sturluson, a 13th century writer, and author of the renowned Edda lived. After lunch the highlights were two waterfalls (Hraunfossar and Barnafossar) and the Deildartunguhver, a hot spring emitting some 200 litres of boiling water per second. The well has been harnessed for heating houses and the water is carried through a pipeline to the towns Borgarnes (ca. 30 km.) and Akranes (ca. 60 km.). The first night we spent in Stykkishólmur. After dinner we visited the public library in Stykkishólmur and the primary school library as well.

The second day we got up very early. First on our program was a boat trip on Breidafjörður to Flatey, where the first Icelandic 'public library' was founded in the 19th century as a private enterprise. In Flatey we also watched the rich bird life including Puffins and Fulmars with their young in the nests. After lunch in Stykkishólmur we drove through the mountain pass Laxárdalsheidi and along Hrútafjörður, where we visited a folklore museum at Reykir. We passed Víðidalstunga farm, where Flateyjarbók, one of the most famous Icelandic manuscripts was written around 1400. Another stop was Kolugil, named after a great gully carved out by the river Víðidalsá. Kolufossar, remarkable and picturesque waterfalls, are in the gully. The second night we spent in the dormitory in Húnavellir.

Our first stop on the third day at Vídimýri, where we visited a church built in 1834-35, a good example of a typical old Icelandic turf church. Then we visited Glaumbær, a 'manor' of turf buildings in the old traditional style, some parts of which date from the 18th century. The manor has been converted into a folklore museum, which gives a clear picture of life as it was in former times in Iceland. From Glaumbær we drove through the mountain pass Öxnadalsheidi. We had lunch in Akureyri, the largest town in the north (ca. 14.000 inhabitants). After lunch we drove across one more mountain pass Ljósavatnsskard, to Stórutjarnir, where we visited a primary school library. We went on to Godafoss, a beautiful and renowned waterfall, in which Thorgeir Goði of Ljósvetningar is said to have thrown his heathen gods after the christianity was accepted by law on the Althing in Thingvellir in the year 1000. The third night we spent in Laugar, where some of the group used the opportunity to swim in an indoor geothermal swimming pool.

The fourth day we spent in the Mývatn area. Mývatn is one of the largest lakes in Iceland (37 km² / 14 miles²). The district is renowned for its natural beauty and it is also very interesting from the geological point of view. The lake is dotted with volcanic islands, some pseudo craters, and surrounded by craters and hot springs. Diatomaceous earth is mined from the lake bottom and processed nearby. The lake and the Laxá river are noted for salmon, trout and char fishing. The Mývatn area has a

greater variety of birds (ducks) than any other place in Iceland, being the prime nesting grounds for ducks in Europe.

The lunch we enjoyed in Reynihlid, at the lake. We had several stops at the lake to watch the birdlife, visit Dimmuborgir, and landscape of rugged crags and lava formations - a veritable fairy tale landscape and last but not least at Námafjall a mountain ridge, where gaping sulphur pits emerge at every footstep. Krafla was also a must, where there are active volcanic craters and where the most recent volcanic eruption in Iceland took place in August 1984. Near Krafla there is a geothermal power plant. Volcanic activity in 1977 did considerable damage to the power plant.

In the late afternoon we drove back to Akureyri where we were expected in the Akureyri Public Library. In the evening a part of the group flew back to Reykjavík, but the others spent the night in Akureyri and drove back to Reykjavík on the fifth day through the interior of Iceland (Kjölur) between the glaciers Hofsjökull and Langjökull, passing unbridged rivers, sand deserts and lava fields. We stopped for a picnic lunch at Hveravellir a geothermal area in the middle of the desert, where a famous Icelandic outlaw, Fjalla-Eyvindur, is said to have lived for a while in the 18th century. During this long and exhausting drive we visited Gullfoss, the golden waterfall, which is considered to be the most beautiful waterfall in Iceland; stopped by the Geysir area in Haukadalur, where the hot spring, Geysir, is situated, after which all other erupting hot springs, are named in English. The "old Geysir" was resting but another one, Strokkur, made a spectacular display.

We had a late dinner at Laugarvatn and came back to the hotels in Reykjavík shortly before midnight.





